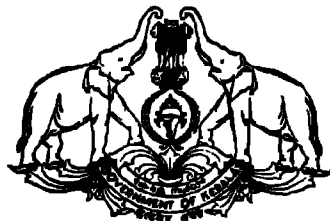
KERALA DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

KOZHIKODE

By

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KOZHIKODE DISTRICT GAZETTEER

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin of the name of the District

The Kozhikode District is named after the town of Kozhikode or Calicut which is the headquarters of the District.[1] There are a few traditional theories regarding the origin of the name Kozhikode. On the evidence of the '*Keralolpathi*' Kozhikode is sometimes called 'the Cock Fort', i.e., the land where the cock crows. The land was part of the Cheraman Perumal's territory, and it is supposed to have fallen to the share of the Nediyiruppu Eradi, the later Zamorin, on the Perumal's alleged departure for Mecca after partitioning the Kingdom. It is also believed to have been so called because the place was so small that the crow of a cock (*Kozhi*) could be heard all over it. Visscher and Gundert interpreted the term to mean "so much land as the sound of a cock crowing from its perch could be heard over."[2] Mr. Thorne was inclined to believe that Kozhi, the vernacular for fowl, was some kind of totem.[3] Sanskrit writers translated it into '*Kukkudakrotaram*' or hencoop. K. V. Krishna Iyer considers these explanations of the origin of the name Kozhikode "to be wide off the mark".[4] According to him *Kotu* is a synonym for stronghold or fortress and *Kozhi* is a corruption of *Koyi* which itself is derived from *Koyil*. The town is thus supposed to derive its name from *Koyilkotu* or *Koyil Kotta*, the 'fortified palace" of the Zamorin. K. M. Panikkar also gives a similar explanation of the origin of the name Kozhikode (Kovil Kotta or Palace Fortress).[5] Komattil Achyutha Menon gives a different explanation. To him the obvious meaning of the word appears to be "the King's harbour fortress" (*Ko*=King+*Azhi*=Harbour+*Kode* or *Code*=fortress).[6]

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1 Calicut is the anglicised form of Kozhikode.

2 *The Zamorins of Calicut*, K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 83.

3 Ibid, page 83.

4 Ibid, page 83.

5 *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p.p. 7-8.

6 *Ancient Kerala*, Komattil Achyutha Menon, p.p. 89 and 144.

Location, general boundaries, total area and population

Kozhikode District is situated on the south west coast of India. It extends from latitude 10° 47′ N to 11° 52′ N, and longitude 75° 32′ E′ to 76° 33′ E. The District is bounded on the north by Cannanore District and Mysore, on the east by Mysore and Nilgiris, on the south by Palghat District and on the west by the Arabian sea. The eastern boundary consists of the Wynad hills and the towering peaks of the Nilgiris. The area of the District is 2554.4 sq. miles[1]. The area of each Taluk is given below in square miles:—

Taluk.	*Area.*
Badagara	214.5
Quilandi	291.5
Kozhikode	373.0
South Wynad	532.8
Ernad	864.2
Tirur	278.4

At its longest point the District extends 60 miles from East to West, and 262 miles from North to South. The total population of the District is 2,065,284 according to the Census of 1951, and 2,619,283 according to the provisional population figures of the 1961 Census.

History of the District as an Administrative Unit

The history of the Kozhikode District as a distinct administrative unit dates back only to 1st January 1957. When the States of the Indian Union were reorganised on linguistic basis on 1st November 1956, the erstwhile Malabar District was separated from Madras State and added to the new unilingual State of Kerala. But the Malabar District was found to be too unwieldy for administrative purposes. Consequently, the State Government ordered the formation of three Districts with certain changes in the boundaries of the then existing Trichur and Malabar Districts and also in the boundaries of some of the Taluks[2]. The Kozhikode District

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1 This is the area of the District as given in the *Statistical Outline of Kerala State* published by the Department of Statistics, (May 1960). The *Hand Book on the Provisional Population Totals of Kerala* (1961) published by the Superintendent of Census Operations gives the total area of the District as 2570.13.

2 *Vide* G. O. No. SRN.3-29174|56 dated 19th December, 1956.

which thus came into existence on 1st January 1957 originally consisted of five Taluks viz., Badagara, Quilandi, Kozhikode, Ernad and Tirur[1]. The South Wynad Taluk was at first included in the new District of Cannanore as a temporary arrangement, but after the general elections of 1957 it was added to the Kozhikode District with effect from 3rd March 1957[2].

Administrative Sub-Divisions

The Kozhikode District at present consists of two Revenue Divisions, six Taluks, 21 firkas and 208 villages. The names of the Revenue Divisions, Taluks and Firkas are furnished below:

Name of Revenue Division	*Name of Taluk*	*Name of Firka.*
Kozhikode	Badagara	Badagara
		Nadapuram
	Quilandi	Perambra
		Balusseri
		Quilandi
	Kozhikode	Kozhikode Town
		Chevayur
		Kunnamangalam
		Koduvalli
	South Wynad	Kalpetta
		Sultan's Battery
		Kaniyambatta
Malappuram	Ernad	Manjeri
		Wandur
		Malappuram
		Kondotti
	Tirur	Tirurangadi
		Tirur
		Vengara
		Tanur
		Kuttipuram

1 Badagara and Quilandi Taluks were formed out of the old Kurumbranad Taluk. The Tirur Taluk was formed out of certain portions of the old Ernad and Ponnani Taluks.

2 *Vide* G. O. R. Dis. 4116|57 RD dated 11th March, 1957.

Originally the number of villages or *Amsams* in the District was 332. But with the reorganisation of revenue administration consequent upon the abolition of the hereditary office of the village *Adhikari* in September 1961 the number of villages was reduced to 208.

TOPOGRAPHY

Natural Divisions, Elevation, Configuration etc.

On the basis of physical features, the District divides itself into three natural divisions—the low land bordering the sea, the midland consisting of the undulating country east of the low lands and the forest clad highland on the extreme east. The elevation of the land gradually increases from the sea level as it goes east and finally reaches the Wynad plateau the average height of which is 300 ft. above sea level.

Hills and peaks

The most important hills of the District are the following:

Ernad Taluk

1. The Vavul or Wayut Mala (7673 ft.)
2. Vellara Mala[1] (7362 ft.)
3. The Chekkumalai hills, containing a Trigonometrical Survey Station (1970 ft.)
4. The Pandalur hills whose ridge separates Ernad from Palghat District (2,002 ft.)
5. The Urot Mala (1567 ft.) containing a Trigonometrical Station.

Badagara Taluk

1. The Nattavaram hill on which there is a Trigonometrical Station (4553 ft.)

South Wynad Taluk

1. Mottumala or Manikunnu (4509 ft.)
2. Elambileri Mala (6032 ft.)
3. Kurichipandi Mala (5271 ft.)

Natural Scenery

Kozhikode is an attractive District rich in natural scenery. In the north the sandy coastal strip of the Badagara and Quilandi Taluks slopes upwards as one goes inland until it is

1 It is situated in the trijunction of the Taluks of South Wynad, Ernad and Calicut.

lost in broken laterite hillocks. The inland becomes more and more scrub-covered and jungly as the hills are approached. Road communications along the coast are broken by a never-ending sequence of back-waters and river mouths which supply the District with a cheap and unfailing net-work of water-ways. The main road from Calicut to South Wynad and thence to Ootacamund or to Mysore follows the wide valley running up into the hills between two outlying lofty spurs of the Wynad hills.

Plateaus and plains

The Wynad is an elevated and exceedingly picturesque mountainous plateau. The average height of the plateau above sea level is 3000 ft. It is generally rugged and has some of the largest mountain peaks in the District. The regions bordering North Wynad run into a chain of low hills of easy slopes covered with bamboo forests. The Nilgiri-Kunda range juts out into the sky on the eastern side of the South Wynad Taluk. There are also a large number of low ridges and innumerable valleys running in all directions. The diversity of physical features has resulted in a corresponding diversity of climate. While in some of the mountainous peaks it is pinching cold, lower down to an elevation of 2000 to 3000 ft. bracing cold is experienced. In the plains the climate is generally hot.

Sea coast

The sea board of the District is 72 miles long. There is a natural harbour at Beypore. Kadalundi amsam in Tirur Taluk is an island formed by the Kadalundi and Beypore rivers on three sides and by the sea on the West.

RIVER SYSTEM AND WATER RESOURCES

The important rivers of the District are:—(1) Murat (Kuttiadi) (2) Korapuzha (3) Kallayi (4) Chaliyar (Beypore) (5) Kadalundi (6) Pooraparamba (7) Tirur (8) Mahe river and (9) Kabani river. A brief description of each of the rivers is given below.

Murat (Kuttiadi) river

The Murat river otherwise called Kuttiadi river lies in the former Kurumbranad Taluk and it takes its origin from the thick virgin forests on the western slopes of the Wynad hills from an elevation of 3000′ above M.S.L.* It has a total

* Mean Sea Level.

length of about 46 miles and drain into the Arabian sea at the historical place known as Kottakkal fort, about 2 miles south of Badagara. The river is also called Kotta river as a fort (*Kotta*) commands its entrance into the sea. The Murat river, after taking its source at an elevation of +3000′ flows southwards for a distance of about 2½ miles, and then turns westwards towards Kuttiadi. During this course, the river bed falls by about 2000′ within a length of about 2 miles, and the water fall at this site is locally known as Oorakuzhi falls. The area traversed by the river is hilly and covered with thick forests. From Kuttiadi the river flows in a south-west direction and passes through the villages of Tiruvallur, Muyippott, Maniyur and Karuvancheri, before it joins the sea. The river basin, down stream of Kuttiadi is thickly populated, and different kinds of crops are grown here. The river has two main tributaries, viz., Kadiyangadpuzha and Onipuzha. The Kadiyangadi stream originates from Arikunnu and Kodiyandumala at an altitude of about 2300′ above M.S.L. and flows towards North-West through the villages of Kayanna, Perambra and Changarangot. It joins the main river about 3 miles down stream of Kuttiadi. This stream is about 10 miles in length. The Onipuzha has its source in the Western Ghats at an altitude of about +3500′ and it flows mostly through hilly regions, and joins the main river about 7 miles upstream of Kuttiadi ferry. The total catchment area of the stream is about 166 sq. miles. Based on an average rainfall of 183″ in the catchment area, and assuming 66 2|3% run-off, the total yield of the river for one year can roughly be estimated as 46,980 M.Cft. The dry weather flow of the river during the month of April 1958 was observed to be about 16 cusecs. The river is being used for navigation. Floating of timber logs along the river from its upper reaches is usually done. Motor boats are also plying from the sea mouth to Kuttiadi.

Korapuzha river.

The Korapuzha is formed by the confluence of two streams called Punnurpuzha and Agalapuzha. From this confluence the river flows in a South westerly direction for about a mile before its infall into the backwater. The portion of the river after the confluence is called Korapuzha.

Punnurpuzha, the main tributary of Korapuzha, takes its origin in Arikkan kunnu hills at an elevation of 2000′ above M.S.L. and flows in a southern direction, turns West, and then

takes a meandering course before it joins Korapuzha. The Agalapuzha, the second main tributary, originates from the Kodiyanadumala at an elevation of 2300′ above M.S.L. This river formed with two branches crosses the Quilandi-Balusseri Road. The length of Agalapuzha and Punnurpuzha is 20 and 39 miles respectively. Agalapuzha flows through Kizhariyur, Karuvangad and Kunnathara, and Punnurpuzha flows through Unnikulam, Kedavur, Rarot, Koduvalli, Punnur, Kunnamangalam etc., and joins Korapuzha near Elathur.

The Korapuzha and its main tributaries Punnurpuzha and Agalapuzha are all tidal in their lower reaches. The catchment area of these rivers upto their confluence is 232 sq. miles.

Assuming an average rainfall of 150″ in the basin, the annual run off through Korapuzha will be about 58,700 Mcft. The Punnurpuzha alone has a catchment area of 108 sq. miles with a computed total run-off of 25,500 M.Cft. No major irrigation schemes have been taken up in this river basin so far.

The lower reaches of Punnurpuzha are used for navigation purposes. Floating timber along the river from the upper reaches is the main use of the river. Timber brought to Elathur through Korapuzha is brought to Kallayi through Elathur-Kallayi canal.

Agalapuzha forms a part of the important West Coast Inland navigation system. There is heavy water traffic through this river connecting all important industrial towns lying in the coastal areas such as Badagara, Kozhikode, Kallayi, Beypore, Tirur etc.

Kallayi river.

Kallayi river has its origin in the midlands of Cherukulathur village in Kozhikode Taluk at an elevation of 150′ above M.S.L. It is connected with Chaliyar and Korapuzha by artificial canals. Even though the river is very small, it is probably the most important in the whole of the State from the commercial point of view. Kallayi, one of the biggest centres of timber trade in India, is situated on the banks of this river. The river is tidal and the boats can go almost up to its origin.

The river after its origin passes through Cherukulathur, Kovur, Olavanna, Manava, Kallayi and finally joins the sea near Calicut town after travelling a total distance of about 14 miles. The total catchment area of the river basin is 37 sq. miles.

Assuming an average rainfall of 126" the total run off works out to 7,200 M.cft. There are no minor, medium or major schemes either existing or under execution in this river basin.

Chaliyar or Beypore river.

The Chaliyar river, otherwise known in the lower reaches as Beypore river, is one of the major rivers in the State. The main river starts from the Elambileri Hills at an altitude of 6780' above M.S.L. It is formed by the confluence of numerous streams and rivers and the important tributaries which contribute their flow to the main river are listed below with the approximate length and drainage area of each.

Name of Tributary	Length in miles	Catchment area in Sq. miles	Elevation of source.
1. Cherupuzha	23	82	4000'
2. Iringipuzha	28	90	7600'
3. Kurumbranpuzha	18	37	5500'
4. Kanhirapuzha	11	32	7670'
5. Karimpuzha	25	72	8390'
6. Punnapuzha	34	120	7790'
7. Vadapurampuzha	24	100	7970'
8. Chaliyarpuzha	8	17	800'

The parent river Chaliyar flows through Cholamala Estate, Kanthapara, Kurumbanmala, Mannathiambalam, Mambad, Edavanna, Ariyakkod, Vazhakkad, Feroke and finally joins the sea at Beypore. The river, which has a total length of about 105 miles, drains a total area of about 1088 sq. miles out of which 145 sq. miles lies in Madras State. Based on an average rainfall of 110" for the entire basin and allowing 33 1|3% to cover losses in percolation, evaporation etc., the total annual run-off that can be anticipated from the river will be about 1,85,000 M.cft. The gauging of the flow of the main river and its important tributaries has been started very recently.

The lower reaches of the Chaliyar form part of the important West Coast inland navigation system. The entire length of the river from Beypore to Nilambur is made use of for navigation throughout the year. Motor boats ply between

Feroke and Vazhakkad during the other periods. Large quantities of timber are also floated down to Kallayi through this river.

Kadalundi river.

Kadalundi river is also known as Karimpuzha and Oravanpurampuzha at different reaches in its course. It is formed by the confluence of two tributaries Olipuzha and Velliar. The river takes its origin from the forests of the Silent Valley at an elevation of 4000′ above M.S.L.

The length of the river is about 81 miles which flows through Perinthalmanna, Ernad and Tirur Taluks. Olipuzha and Velliar join together about 1½ miles east of Oravanpuram. The important places along the river course are Karuvarakundu, Melathur, Pandikad, Malappuram, Tirurangadi and Kadalundi. The total catchment area of the river is 430 sq. miles and taking an average rain fall of 116″, the total run-off works out to 77,300 M.Cft.

Of all the rivers of Kerala, probably Kadalundi is the one which is subjected to high flood damages. This is mainly due to the fact that it flows along the coast for a distance of about 20 miles in a comparatively shallow terrain below M.S.L. During both the monsoon periods the river and its tributaries in the lower reaches are in floods with the result that neighbouring villages of Tennippalam, Velimukku, Munniyur, Olakara, Koduvayur, Trikulam, Kodinni, Tirurangadi, Neduva, etc., get submerged. No important flood control schemes have been completed so far. The construction of a bridge-cum-regulator across Keeranellur river at Palathingal is in progress.

This river is important from the navigational point of view. It forms a part of the West Coast navigation system for about 14 miles between Palathingal and Mannur. Small boats go through the river with cargo upto Karavarakundu during the rainy season. Similarly timber logs and bamboo rafts are floated down to Kallai and Ponnani through this river from Karavarakundu and other places.

Poorapparamba river.

Poorapparamba river is one of the smallest rivers of the State. It starts from near the tail-end of Poorapparamba cut and flows in a westerly direction. The river is tidal, and its total length is about 5 miles. It is connected to Keeranellur

river by the Poorapparamba cut. The river flows in a westerly direction for 1½ miles from its source and crosses the Madras-Mangalore Railway between Tanur and Parappanangadi Railway Stations. There is a ferry just at the down stream side of the railway bridge. The river afterwards takes a 'U' shape and finally joins the sea after traversing about 2½ miles. It has only a catchment area of 9 sq. miles.

The average rainfall of the basin has been estimated at 112″ based on which the total annual run off has been computed as 1560 M.Cft.

From the navigational point of view the river is very important. The country boats from Ponnani travel through Tirur river up to Kuttayi and from there through Tanur-Kuttayi Canal up to Poorapparamba cut and then to the Keeranellur river.

Tirur river.

Tirur river is a small river which takes its source at an altitude of +283′ above M.S.L. from the Atavanad in Tirur Taluk. It has no major tributaries and it is called Vallilapuzha in its upper reaches. It has an overall length of 30 miles from its origin up to its infall into the sea. From the origin up to Tirunavaya the river flows in a south-west direction, then it turns north west and flows up to Elambulavu from where it flows again towards south west before finally joining the sea near Ponnani town. The river is very narrow, but from thereon, it is sufficiently broad. The total catchment area of the river is 55 sq. miles.

The average rainfall of the Tirur river basin is about 112″ and a total run-off of 9500 M.Cft. is expected in the river.

From the navigational point of view the river is very important. A number of Motor boats are plying between the towns of Ponnani and Tirur. From Ponnani to Kuttayi the river forms part of the West Coast canal system. Tirur and Poorapparamba rivers are connected by Tanur-Kuttayi canal and the length of the canal is 11 miles. At present the river is navigable up to Tirur Railway station. Navigation through the river can be further extended to Tirunavaya town by maintaining the minimum depth of flow. This can be achieved by providing two navigation locks at the proposed sites of the two regulators for improving navigation facilities in the basin at a cost of Rs. 6 lakhs.

Mahe River.

The Mahe river rises in the once heavy forests of Velliyode, Narippatta and Kavilumpara amsams adjoining the Ghats and after a course of about 34 miles falls in the sea at the former French settlement of Mahe. This is navigable in all seasons up to Parakadavu some 12 miles further up stream. During summer it is not navigable beyond Parakadavu.

Kabani river.

Kabani river, one of the important tributaries of Cauvery river, has its origin in Wynad and flows towards east of the western ghats to join the main river. This river is formed by the confluence of two main tributaries, Panamaram and Manamtody. Panamaram river has its source in the western ghats near Lakkidi (South Wynad) at an altitude of about 4500 ft. above M.S.L. Manamtody river takes its origin in the Tondarmudi Malai (North Wynad) at an elevation of about 5000 ft. These two rivers join together about four miles north of Panamaram. From this confluence point, the combined river known as Kabani flows for a distance of 5 miles through Kerala State, and for another seven miles along the boundary limits of Kerala and Mysore. At Kalvalli, the river takes a northern direction and flows through Mysore State.

Lakes and Tanks.

The important lakes in this District are (1) Kuttiadi Thura in Kuttiadi amsam in Badagara Taluk and (2) Pookkot lake, a natural sheet of water among hills in Kunnathidavaka amsam in South Wynad Taluk. There is water in these lakes throughout the year.

The following are the important tanks in this District.

1. Therkulam in Kondotti Block in Kondotti Panchayat.
2. Kattukettinkulam in Kattuparuthi Panchayat, Tirur Taluk.
3. Manthannikulam in Wandoor Panchayat.
4. Pallikkulam in Chelambra Amsam, Ernad Taluk.
5. Narikulam in Naduvattam Amsam Tirur Taluk.
6. Irrigation tank at the Agricultural Research Station, Ambalavayal, South Wynad.

GEOLOGY AND ECONOMIC RESOURCES

Introduction

The Kozhikode district can be divided physiographically into the following four regions:—(1) Coastal region (2) Undulating region (Western part of plateau) (3) Gorge region (Central part of plateau) (4) Plain at the foot of the Ghats.

The coast is low and sandy, with occasional laterite patches. There are narrow backwaters and some wide marshy tracts that lie nearly at the sea level.

The entire western part is covered by recent deposits. The land immediately to the east of this region rises to a height of 30.48 to 45.72 metres and presents a somewhat cliff-like aspect to the sea. This cliff is of laterite. Many valleys have been cut in the higher land.

The country to the east of this cliff is undulating with low hills and shallow valleys. The height gradually increases towards east.

Further in the interior, the high ground between the valleys becomes higher and the valleys become deeper with steep sides instead of gentle slopes.

Further inland, the area becomes again undulated, but rather flatter and is really a plain with shallow valleys cut in it. This type extends up to the foot of the Ghats, the general level being broken only by irregular gneissic hills (76.20 to 106.68 metres) above the sea. The entire eastern margin is a continuous mountain barrier. The height of this barrier ranges from 914.4 to 2438.4 metres above the sea level.

GEOLOGY

Archaean gneiss is the most extensively developed rock type of this District. Towards the coast it is overlain by laterite or recent deposits. There are a few exposures of charnockite in the southern part of the District. The Archaean gneisses here are traversed by a few dykes. The geological succession met with is given below:—

Recent { Recent deposits (Alluvium, Teris, Blown sands, etc.,
Residual laterite.

Archaean { Dykes
Charnockite,
Gneiss (mica-hornblende gneiss and leptynite)

Gneiss

The major rock-type within the Archaean is the biotite-granite-gneiss. This rock consists essentially of quartz and felspar with variable amount of biotite (black mica). At places it has a banded appearance and has been called a "Granite Gneiss". Garnet is also found associated with the rock in certain localities. Hornblende is also noticed as an additional accessory mineral within the biotite-gneiss in certain areas. The biotite-gneiss is widespread and is seen to cover large areas in the hill-tracts.

Quartzose gneisses (leptynites?) are common in the Nilambur-Edavanna—Pandikkad areas. Garnetiferous quartz gneiss (leptynites) is seen near Manjeri—Kondotti and Pandalur.

Under the general category of gneisses of the earlier workers, has been included another rock-type often described as leptynite. This is a light-coloured rock, consisting mainly of quartz, felspars and some amount of garnet. This rock appears to grade into the Charnockite and also into the gneisses.

Charnockite

The rocks are characterised by the presence of hypersthene. Bluish-grey quartz and felspar are found in the acid and intermediate varieties imparting to them a dark, blue, grey-greasy appearance. Charnockitic rocks occur near Nilambur and also at 5.64 kms. NE. The hills near Edavanna also consist presumably of charnockites.

Dykes

Several prominent and parallel dolerite dykes consisting of plagioclase felspar and pyroxene in typical ophitic texture, are seen forming ridges just east of Manjeri. In addition, another occurrence of a basic dyke is known to the south of the Pandikkad river, near the crossing of the road from Pandikkad to Angadipuram (10°59′:76°13′). This dyke trends S 30°E.

A small felsitic dyke, which is composed of felspars, hornblende and abundant magnetite is found on the road from Manjeri to Malapuram.

Large pegmatites, consisting chiefly of quartz and felspars, and carrying valuable deposits of mica are known to occur in

the Wynad Taluk. Auriferous quartz reefs of considerable size are also known to occur in Wynad. A quartz reef is also found in the laterite between the 11th and 12th miles from Pandikkad. Another vein is seen near the junction of the Wandur-Nilambur and Edavanna-Nilambur road, while a third large vein occurs near Nilambur (Lake, 1890).

Laterite

Laterite is a product of weathering common to the areas with the warm moist climates. Vermicular laterite is seen south of Tirur Station (10°55':75°55') and on the hills NW of Chillinbur.

Pellety laterite is usually more massive than that of the vermicular variety, and consists of small irregular nodular pellets of clayey iron oxide, cemented by a rather ferruginous matrix. This variety of laterite is seen at Pandikkad (11°6': 76°14') about 12.88 kms. east of Manjeri. Some of the good exposures are seen in the terraces, near Malapuram (11°2': 76°5') and also along the road from Tirurangadi (11°2':75°55') to Venkatakotta (Kottakal) and Angadipuram (10°58':76°12') (Lake, 1890).

Vermicular laterite is invariably found on the plateau, as at Pandikkad, west of Cherplacheri, north of Kadamanjeri, near Mambram (11°3':75°55'), etc.

Recent deposit

The banks of the rivers are partly marine and partly fluviatile deposits. According to Lt. Newbold, the succession met with on the banks of the Beypore river, near Beypore, is given below:—

	Metres.
Sandy alluvial soil	1.2192
Loose sandstone with beds of ochreous earths.	3.048
Gritty sandstone passing into gritty laterite, the lower part variegated with red and yellow bands	6.096
Carboniferous stratum, a few millimetres to.—	1.522

A bed of oily shale was found in the bed of the Kallayi river at Calicut which thins out to north and south.

ECONOMIC GEOLOGY

Gold

Panning for alluvial gold is being carried out at Nilambur. Gold is also reported to occur in uneconomical quantity in Porur (11°9':76°15'). It is estimated that the possible tenor of the deposit will be less than 1.55 gms. tonnes (Damodaran 1956).

Gold is found in the reefs occurring in Wynad which form part of Kerala and Madras States. Quartz veins carrying values varying between 1.58 to 3.565 gms. tonnes occur in the biotite-gneisses of the area. The deposits are, however, reported to be uneconomical.

Iron

In the Ernad Taluk iron ore of good quality is reported to occur in Porur, Chembrasseri and Pandikkad.

The small deposit of iron ore near Karivarukundu (11°7': 76°20') consists of a hematite-magnetite band which extends for a short distance in a NE-SW direction dipping at about 70° to the SW. Two samples analysed gave the following result:

	Fe	SiO_2	P_2O_5
1.	57.55%	7.84%	0.31%
2.	46.96%	29.50%	0.15%

A small deposit of iron ore occurs to the south of Wandur (11°12':76°14') (Damodaran, 1956).

Pyrite

Pyrite is reported to occur associated with the gold-bearing veins in the Wynad.

Lime-Shell

R. Thiagarajan (1957) reports the occurrence of shell limestone in the backwaters of Korapuzha river, N of Elathur (11°20':75°44'). Production of shell limestone is between 3.048 to 5.08 tonnes which is locally burnt for lime.

Monazite, Ilmenite, etc.

The beach sands are reported to contain monazite, ilmenite, etc.

FLORA

Introduction

The flora of Kozhikode is characteristically tropical due to the heavy rainfall, moderate temperature and the high mountainous eastern border. Physiographically this district can be divided into coastal, midland and mountainous regions. These three form nearly parallel belts running along the length of the district.

Coastal region

This forms only a very narrow belt and is formed of recent deposits of sand. Some of the representative plants of this area are *Ipomoea pes-caprae, Launaea pinnatifida, Gisekia, pharnaceoides, Polycarpaea corymbosa, Zoysia matrella, Portulaca tuberosa, Tephrosia purpurea, Sida cordifolia* etc. Most of these plants, possess xerophytic characters. Besides, there are many water and marsh plants with special adaptations.

Midland region

This region with the hills and dales presents an undulating tract of laterite soil. Major area of the district comes under this category. This region is thickly populated and a greater part is under cultivation mainly of coconut, paddy, plantains, various tuber crops like tapioca, yams, colocasia and other vegetables.

Some of the dominent tree forms of this region are *Macaranga indica* (Eppothi), *Mangifera indica* (Mavu), *Artocarpus integrifolia* (Pilavu), *Cieba pentandra* (Elavu), *Alstonia scholaris* (Ezhilampala), *Enterolobium saman* (Urakkamthoongi), *Erythrina indica* (Mullumurukku), *Polyalthia longifolia* (Aranamarom).

Weeds like *Eupatorium* spp. *Clerodendron infortunatum, Cleome viscosa, Hyptis suaveolens, Anisomeles ovata, Croton sparciflorus, Amaranthus spinosus, Euphorbia hirta, Synedrella nodiflora, Ageratum conyzoides, Achyranthes aspera, Mimosa pudica* etc are common in cultivated and waste lands.

The hill tops are covered with grasses like *Aristida setacea, Setaria glauca, Setaria* spp. *Themeda triandra* etc. Inter mingled with these grasses are other plants like *Osbeckia octandra, Lantana aculeata, Habenaria* spp. etc. Rubber and teak plantations are common on some of the hills.

Mountainous region

The soil of this region is of the red ferruginous type. The most valuable of these soils is the white or yellow clay which fills the tubular hollows that runs through the laterite in every direction. This clay contains both iron and potassium.

The midland region gradually merges into scrub jungle. Giant grasses like *Bamboos* and smaller grasses like *Cymbopogon, Themeda, Apluda, Setaria* are common in this area. Other plants like *Zizyphus oenoplia, Dodonaea viscosa, Glycosmis cochinchinensis, Uvaria narum, Lantana aculeata, Anacardium occidentale* are also seen.

Above 2000 ft. the area is constantly humid and is uniformly clad with ever green rain forest. The forest undergrowth include *Laportea terminalis, Exacum, Canscora, Naragamia, Myxopyrum, Pogostemon, Elephantopus*, many terrestrial orchids like *Habenaria, Microstylis* and a number of ferns and mosses. The cleared mountain slopes are used for tea, coffee and cardamom plantations.

Tectona grandis (Teak) *Terminalia paniculata* and *T. tomentosa* are grown in plantations at Nilambur and other areas. Conolly plantations at Nilambur is the oldest teak plantation in the world.

Some of the very common trees in the forest are *Bridelia retusa. Glochidion zeylanicum, Hydnocarpus wightiana, Xylia xylocarpa, Ceiba pentandra* etc. Woody climbers are also common in this area.

The plants of this district are arranged in this flora according to the new system of J. Hutchinson.

LIGNOSAE

ANNONALES

Annonanceae

Annona squamosa Linn (Atha) and *A. reticulata* Linn. (Vilathi) are small trees, grown for its edible fleshy fruits

Artabotrys odoratissimus R. Br. (Manorangini).

A hook climber cultivated in garden for its fragrant flowers.

Other plants like *Polyalthia longifolia, Uvaria narum, U. zeylanica* are found scattered in this district.

LAURALES

Lauraceae

Cinnamomum zeylanicum Blume, Karuva Vazhana.

A medium sized tree with aromatic wood and foliage. Bark of this tree is the Cinnamon bark of commerce.

C. *sulphuratum* Nees.

A tree with pale yellowish branches and leaves. Evergreen trees like *Neolitsea scrobiculata, Litsea chinensis* are found in the evergreen forests.

ROSALES

Rosaceae

Rubus ellipticus. Sm.

A large straggling prickly shrub with trifoliate leaves. Found growing at high elevations.

Different horticultural varieties of Rosa are cultivated in gardens.

LEGUMINALES

Caesalpiniaceae

Tamarindus indica L. Puli.

A large evergreen tree found growing scattered throughout the district. The fruit is universally esteemed and the dried or preserved pulp is often exported.

Cassia siamea Lamk. Manjakonna.

A moderate sized tree with yellow flowers.

Cassia alata Linn. Puzhukadi-konna.

A handsome shrub, growing wild in marshy areas.

Caesalpinia crista Linn. Kazanchi.

A large straggling thorny shrub with yellow flowers common on waste lands near the villages of Sultans Battery.

Caesalpinia pulcherrima Swartz. Rajamalli.

A spreading shrub with flowers of variable colours—cultivated as a garden plant.

Plants like *Cassia occidentalis, Cassia mimusoides*, different species of *Bauhinia, Saraca indica, Delonix regia* are also found growing in this district as weeds and cultivated plants.

Mimosaceae

Mimosa rubicaulis Lamk.

A large prickly shrub with pink flowers in globose heads.

Albizzia lebbeck Benth. Vaga.

A large deciduous tree with flat pods. Wood hard, dark brown in colour, and used in a variety of ways.

Enterolobium saman Prain. Raintree.

A large spreading tree, found growing on the road sides.
Pithecolobium dulce Benth.

A thorny tree often grown as hedge plant. *Acacia farnesiana, Mimosa pudica, Xylia xylocarpa, Adenanthera pavonia,* are also found growing scattered throughout the district.

Papilionaceae

Erythrina indica Lam. Mullumurukku.

A striking tree in flower. Grown as a support for pepper.
Pericopsis mooniana Thwaites.

A slow growing timber tree. Near Conolly plantations, this plant is cultivated on a small plot of land of about 2 acres.
Butea frondosa Koen. Palasin Samatha.

A large deciduous tree with trifoliate leaves and scarlet flowers. Found at higher elevations. Wood used for sacred utensils.

Cajanus indicus spreng. Thuvara.

An erect shrub with yellow flowers cultivated for its seeds.

Vegetables like *Canavalia ensiformis, Phaseolus multiflorus, Dolichos biflorus, Dolichos lablab* are cultivated.

Other plants of this family found in the district are *Clitoria ternatea, Abrus precatorius, Desmodium triquetrum, D. pulchellum, D. gangeticum, D. triflorum, Alysicarpus vaginalis, Geissaspsis cristata, Tephrosia purpurea, Indigofera enneaphylla, I. aspalathoides, Crotalaria juncea, C. verrucosa, C. retusa, C. striata* etc.

STYRACALES

SYMPLOCACEAE

Symplocos spicata Roxb. Pachotti.

A small tree with white flowers and globose fruits.

S. rosea Bedd. Malankuruvi.

A small tree with pink flowers and reddish drupes.

CASUARINALES

Casuarinaceae

Casuarina equisetifolia Forst. Sampirani.

A quick-growing tall tree. The ultimate branch lets are cylindrical and the leaves are reduced to scales. Found growing on the road sides.

URTICALES

Ulmaceae

Trema orientalis Bl. Ami.

A fast growing tree. The leaves are oblique and 3 ribbed at the base. The wood is excellent for charcoal. Common in the forest regions and rare in the plains.

Moraceae

Ficus bengalensis Linn. Peral.

A large spreading tree with numerous aerial roots. Found on the road sides.

F. religiosa Linn. Arayal.

A large tree with no aerial roots. Often found growing in the temple premises.

Artocarpus integrifolia Linn. Pilavoo.

A large evergreen tree. Cultivated for the large edible fruits and for the valuable wood.

A. hirsuta Lamk. Anjili.

A tall straight evergreen tree grown as a support for the pepper vines. Wood is also useful.

Streblus asper Lowr. Parava.

A small tree. The leaves are wedge shaped and rough.

Different species of *Pouzolzia, Pilea microphylla, Fleurya interrupta, Laportea terminalis, Elatostemma* sp. are herbs found growing as weeds.

Debregeasia velutina Gaud.

A small tree common in the forest. The lower surface of the lanceolate leaves are with a white tomentum.

Flacourtiaceae

Flacourtia sepiaria Roxb. Cherumullikkachedi.

A thorny shrub on hedges and in scrub jungles.

F. inermis Roxb.

Cultivated in gardens for the globular rosy edible fruits.

Hydnocarpus wightiana Bl. Morotti.

A large evergreen tree with hard globose fruits.

THYMELAEALES

Nyctaginaceae

Boerhaavia diffusa Linn. Thamizhama.

A prostrate branching medicinal herb with rosy flowers common in waste places.

Mirabilis jalapa, species of *Bougainvillea* are grown in gardens.

PROTEALES

Proteaceae

Grevillea robusta A. Cunn.

A handsome tree grown as a shade plant in tea estates.

CAPPARIDALES

Capparidaceae

Capparis zeylanica Linn.

A thorny climbing shrub common in dry forests.

Cleome viscosa Linn. Naikadugu.

A glandular annual weed in waste places with yellow flowers.

C. monophylla Linn.

A pink flowered weed in waste places.

Gynandropsis pentaphylla DC. Karvela.

A tall annual glandular weed. The leaves are long petioled and 3-7 foliate.

Moringaceae

Moringa oleifera Lamk. Muringa.

A medium sized tree with decompound leaves. The tender fruits are used as a vegetable.

PASSIFLORALES

Passifloraceae

Passiflora edulis Mast.

A tendril climber with elegant flowers often grown in gardens.

P. foetida Linn. Poochapalam.

A hairy tendril climber easily recognised by the moss-like pectinate involucre of the flowers.

CUCURBITALES

Cucurbitaceae

Plants belonging to this family are mostly tendril climbers and a majority of them are cultivated for its fruits, which are used as vegetables. Some of these found in this district are *Trichosanthes anguina* Linn. Padavalam, *Momordica charantia* Linn. Pavel, *Luffa aegyptiaca* Mill. Kattupeechal, *L. acutangula* Roxb. Peechan, *Cucurbita* pepo DC. Mathan, etc.

Other members of this family like *Coccinia indica, Melothria madraspatana, Zanonia indica* are found growing wild.

Caricaceae

Carica papaya Linn. Kappekka.

An almost branchless tree conspicuous by the large palmately lobed leaves and large fleshy fruits pendulous from the main stem. Found throughout the district.

Cactales

Cactaceae.

The plants of this family are to be found in the drier areas. They are *Opuntia dillenii* and *Cereus* spp. These are usually grown as hedge plants. The succulent green stem is beset with clusters of foliar spines.

TILIALES

Tiliaceae

Grewia: This genus is represented by a few shrubby species like *G. hirsuta, G. microcos* and *G. tiliaefolia* are found in the forest areas.

Truimfetta rhomoboidea, Corchorus acutangulus, C. capsularis are found growing as weeds in waste places.

Sterculiaceae

Helicteris isora Linn. Valampiri.

A shrub with spirally twisted cylindric fruits. The flowers are red fading to lead colour. Common at higher elevations.

Gauzuma tomentosa. Kunth. Utthrasham.

A small spreading tree with woody tubercled fruits.
Kleinhofia hospita L. A showy tree often grown in gardens.

Weeds like *Melochia corchorifolia, Waltheria indica* are found in waste places.

Sterculia balanghas Linn. Thondi.

A hedge plant with scarlet follicles.

Bombacaceae

Ciqba pentandra Gaertn. Panji.

A tall tree. The branches are horizontal and developing in whorls from the main stem. The white cotton obtained from the fruits used in a variety of ways.

MALVALES

Malvaceae

Thespesia populnea. Cav. Puvarasu.

An evergreen tree with cordate long-petioled leaves. Found growing as a hedge plant.

Hibiscus tiliaceus Linn. Attuparuthi.

A fast growing much branched medium sized tree commonly used as a hedge plant.

H. esculentus L. Venda.

Cultivated here and there for its edible capsules.

H. rosa-sinensis L. Chembarathi.

Different varieties are grown in the gardens.

Plants like *Hibiscus vitifolius, H. surattensis, Abutilon indicum, Sida acuta, Sida cordifolia Urena lobata,* are found as undergrowths and as weeds in the waste places.

EUPHORBIALES

Euphorbiaceae

Macaranga indica Wt. Eppothi.

A quick-growing tree with large peltate leaves. Found throughout the district and is one of the dominant trees in this district. The leaves are used as green manure.

Glochidion zeylanicum A. Juss. Nirvetti.

A small tree common in the hilly regions of Nilambur and Sultans Battery.

Aporosa acuminata Thw.

A small tree found growing on the hilly areas near Sultans Battery.

Mollotus philippinensis Muell.

A spreading small tree with bright red capsules.

Bridelia scandens Gehrm. A large climbing shrub. The leaves on the flowering branches are small. Found near Sultans Battery forest regions.

Jatropha curcas Linn. Kadalavanak.

A shrub commonly found as a hedge plant.

J. gossypifolia Linn. Chuvanna Kadalavanakku.

A dark-violet coloured shrub common in waste places.

Pedilanthes tithymaloides Poit.

A fleshy shrub with dark green shining stems and foliage.

Hevea braziliensis. M. Arg. Rubber.

Cultivated on a very large scale in the elevated regions of this district. Near Chungam, on the way to Sultans Battery, hill tops are covered with rubber plantations.

Manihot utilissima Pohl. Maracheeni.

Occasionally cultivated for the edible tubers.

Croton sparciflorus Morong.

An introduced weed thriving in waste places. Found growing throughout the different districts in this State.

THEALES

Theaceae

Camellia sinensis (L) O.Ktze.

Extensive plantations owned by different companies like E&S&J.C.W.S. Ltd. Malayalam Plantations etc. are found at Meppadi, Chundai (near S. Battery) and at other places.

OCHANALES

Dipterocarpaceae

Vateria indica Linn. Payin.

A large resinous evergreen tree. The leaves are large and leathery. The scented white flowers are in panicles.

Other tall trees like Hopea, and Vatica are seen in evergreen forest areas.

GUTTIFERALES

Clusiaceae (Guttiferae)

Calophyllum inophyllum Linn. Punna.

A moderate sized ornamental tree. The leaves are dark green, leathery and with numerous parallel lateral veins. Two species of *Garcinia* are also found growing here and there.

MYRTALES

Myrtaceae

Syzygium zeylanicum DC. Poochapazhom.

A pretty spreading shrub with white flowers. The filaments are the most conspicuous part of the flower.

Syzygium calophyllifolium Walp. Njara.

A tall tree. The fruits are globose dark-purple and edible. *Jambosa vulgaris* DC. *Eugenia Javanica Lam; Psidium guajava* DC. are grown for the fruits.

Lacythidaceae

Barringtonia recemosa Forst. Samudraksham.

A tree with long pendulous racemes and large brownish red fruit. Commonly found on the banks of canals.

Careya arborea Roxb. Pezhu.

A large deciduous tree with yellowish-white flowers and large globular fruits.

Punicaceae

Punica granatum L. Mathalam.

A large ornamental shrub. The fruits are bright red or orange yellow when ripe and often crowned with the persistent calyx lobes.

Combretaceae

Terminalia panicutala Roth. Maruthu.

A large deciduous tree. Cultivated at Nilambur by the Forest Dept. of the State.

Terminalia tomentosa W&K. Kari-maruthu.

A large deciduous tree. Along with T. *paniculata* cultivated at Nilambur for the valuable timber.

Terminalia catappa Linn. Thalli-thenga.

A handsome deciduous tree. The fruit is a drupe. The spirally folded nut kernels are eaten.

Calycopteris floribunda Lamk. Pullani.

A straggling shrub common on the roadside in hilly areas. areas.

Anogeissus latifolia wall. Maru kanjiram.

A large deciduous tree found occasionally in the forest regions. Wood is used in a variety of purposes.

Quisqualis indica Linn. Rangoon-Creeper.

A straggling climber often grown as a garden plant. The colour of the petal changes from white to red.

Melastomaceae

Osbeekia octandra DC.

A slender undershrub with dark purple flowers. Common on the road sides at high elevations.

Melastoma malabathricum Linn. Kalathi.

A handsome shrub with red purple petals and conspicuous yellow stamens. Common in wet places.

Memecylon edule Roxb. Kanjavu.

A spreading undershrub in uncultivated areas growing in association in Uvaria narum, Glycosmis sp. etc.

SANTALALES

Loranthaceae

Viscum articulatum Burm.

A leafless branched parasite found growing on different hosts.

Elytranthe loniceroides Engler.

A large parasitic shrub with variegated corolla.

Loranthus longiflorus Desv. Ithil.

A large parasitic shrub with scarlet orange flowers and pink berries.

Santalaceae

Santalum album Linn. Chandanam.

A small evergreen semiparasitic tree. Very rare.

RHAMNALES

Rhamnaceae

Zizyphus jujuba Lamk. Elanthei.

A thorny spreading tree. The fruits are edible.

Z. oenoplia Mill. Mulli.

A thorny climbing shrub used for making hedges.

Gouania microcarpa DC.

A large climbing shrub. Found as an undergrowth in the forest areas.

Vitaceae

Cissus quadrangularis Linn. Changalamparanda.

A fleshy tendril climber with jointed tetragonal stem.

Cissus vitiginea L.

A fast growing tendril climber common on hedges.

Cissus glauca Roxb.

A tendril climber with large cordate leaves. Common in waste places.

Cayratia pedata Juss. Neeroottikilangu.

A tendril climber common on hedges. The leaves are 7-9 foliate.

Leea sambucina Willd. Erattayani.

An undershrub with pinnately compound leaves. Common in the Nilambur forest areas chiefly as an undergrowth.

EBENALES

Sapotaceae

Achras sapota Linn.

A shrub cultivated for the edible fruits.

Bassia latifolia Roxb. Ilupa.

A large deciduous tree. The cotyledons yield a valuable oil.

Bassia malabarica Bedd. Attu iluppai.

A large tree weith yellowish white flowers.

Mimusops elengi Linn. Elengi.

A large tree with scented flowers. The fruits are edible.

RUTALES

Rutaceae

Citrus aurantium L. Orange.

Cultivated at Sultans Battery for the fruits.

C.medica var. *acida* Brand. Cherunaragaom.

Cultivated here and there. The fruits are used in a variety of purposes.

Murraya konigii spreng. Kariveppila.

A small shrub. The leaflets are used in flavouring curries.

Aegle marmelos Corr. Kuvalom.

A small tree. Found always associated with temples.

Simaroubaceae

Ailanthus malabarica DC. Mattipal.

A lofty deciduous tree. The soft white wood is useful.

Samadera indica Gaertn. Karinjotta.

Grown as a hedge plant. Medicinally important.

MELIALES

Meliaceae

Melia azedarach Linn. Karinvembu.

A pretty medium sized tree. The leaves are 2-3 pinnate and the flowers are lilac in colour.

Azadirachta indica A. Juss. Veppu.

An important deciduous tree with imparipinnate leaves.

Naregamia alata W&A. Nilanaragom.

An under shrub. Found as an undergrowth in Nilambur forest area.

Aglaia roxburghiana and *Swietenia macrophylla* are very rare in this district.

SAPINDALES

Sapindaceae

Cardiospermum halicacabum Linn. Uzhinja.

A climbing weed with much dissected leaves and inflated capsules.

Sapindus laurifolius whall. Pasakotta.

A stout shady tree. The fruits are used as a substitute for soap.

Dodonaea viscosa Linn. Urali.

A weed with winged fruits.

Anacardiaceae

Anacardium occidentale Linn. Parangimavu.

A spreading medium sized tree. Cultivated extensively for the nuts in the midland region.

Spondias mangifera Willd. Ambazham.

A deciduous tree common on hedges.

Mangifera indica Linn. Mavu.

A large spreading evergreen tree. Found throughout the district.

Odina wodier Roxb. Uthi.

A deciduous tree. Rarely seen in this district.

Semecarpus anacardium Linn· Thenkotti (Marking nut tree).

A deciduous forest tree. The pericarp of the fruit yield, a resinous juice.

LOGANIALES

Strychnaceae

Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. Kanjirom.

A deciduous tree with globose orange red fruit. The seeds contain strychine and largely exported.

Strychnos aenea A.W. Hill.

A large climbing shrub in evergreen forest.

Oleaceae

Myxopyrum serratulam A.W. Hill Chathuravalli.

A large climbing shrub with prominent reticulatins. Very common in Nilambur forest areas.

Olea dioica Roxb. Edana.

A moderate sized tree with creamy white flowers.

Nyctanthes arbor-tristis Linn. Pavizhamalli.

A bushy shrub. The flowers open after night fall and fall off in the morning. Grown as a garden plant.

Jasminum sambac Ait. Mulla.

A climbing shrub with fragrant white flowers. Grown in gardens.

J.grandiflorum Linn. Pichi.

A climbing shrub with pinnately compound leaves and fragrant white flowers.

APOCYNALES

APOCYNACEAE

Cerbera manghas Linn. Othalom.

A small tree with large white flowers and ellipsoid drupaceous fruits. Common on the banks of backwaters.

Alstonia scholaris R.Br. Ezhilampala.

A large evergreen tree. The soft white wood is used in match industry.

A.venenanta R.Br. Palamunpala.

A shrub with long white flowers in cymose corymbs.

Holarrhena antidysenterica Wall. Kodagapala.

A small tree. The flowers are white.

Thevetia nerifolia Juss. Manja areli.

A small tree with deep yellow funnel shaped flowers and fruits with a characteristic shape.

Nerium odorum soland. Areli.

A large shrub cultivated for the rosy pink flowers.

Plumeria acutifolia Poiret. Ezha-chembagom.

A garden plant. Different varieties are seen in the district.

Allamandd cathartica Linn.

A handsome climber with whorled leaves and yellow funnel shaped flowers.

Asclepiadaceae

Calotropis gigantea R.Br. Erukku.

A large milky shrub. Common on the road sides.

Hemidesmus indicus R.Br. Narunandi.

A twining wiry shrub with polymorphous leaves. Common on hedges and also found among the undergrowths in the forest areas.

Pergularia extensa N.E. Br. Veliparatti.

A nasty smelling milky climber common on the hedges.

Marsdenia volubilis T. Cooke. Vattakuringi.

A large climbing shrub with greenish flowers.

Tylophora asthmatica W&A. Valli-pala.

A much branched climber. The roots and leaves have been used as a substitute for Ipecacuanha.

RUBIALS

Rubiaceae

Mussaenda frondosa Linn. Parathole.

A straggling shrub. Some of the flowers in an inflorescence show large leaf-like white sepals.

Pavetta indica Linn. Pavetta.

A large shrub with white flowers and very variable leaves.

Coffea arabica Linn.

Cultivated on a very large scale on the hily tops of this district.

Chasalia curviflora Thw. Vellakurunji.

A small shrub with membraneous leaves, and the corolla tube is curved. There are many other members of this family found in this district. Some of them are weeds like *Oldenlandia auricularia, O. herbacea, O. umbellata, Knoxia corymbosa, Borreria strictc, B. hispida* etc.

Different species of *Ixora*, are cultivated as ornamental plants.

BIGNONIALES

Bignoniaceae

Millingtonia hortensis Linn. f. Mara-malli (Tam)

A tall handsome tree with long white sweet scented flowers.

Oroxylum indicum vent. Palaga paiyani.

A small conspicuous tree with very large 2-3 pinnate leaves and large flat fruits.

Different species of *Bignonia, Tecoma capensis, stenolobium stans*, are grown in gardens.

Pedaliaceae

Sesamum indicum Linn. Yellu.

Cultivated for the valuable oil yielding seeds.

Pedalium murex Linn. Ana-nerinjel.

A way side fleshy annual with spiny fruits.

VERBENALES

Verbenaceae

Tectona grandis Linn. f. Thekku.

A large deciduous tree. The timber is world famous. This tree flourishes best in a fairly moist, warm, tropical climate. Found throughout the hilly areas of this district. The most notable plantation being the Conolly plantations. This is one of the oldest teak plantations in the world and was raised during the year 1846 by Sri Chathu Menon under orders from Mr. H. V. Conolly, the then Collector of Malabar. The area of this plot is 5.675 acres with 165 trees, of which the biggest tree is No. 23. The girth and height of the tree at present is 12′ 7″ and 154′ respectively. This plantation plot is surrounded by streams.

Callicarpa arborea Roxb. Nai-kumbil.

A moderate-sized tree with lilac purple flowers. The leaves are large and the under surface covered with pale stellate tomentum.

Lantana aculeata Linn. Poochedi.

An aromatic weed found throughout the district.

Stachytarpheta indica Vahl. Navali.

A tall herbaceous weed with deep blue flowers on terminal spikes.

Plants like *Clerodendron infortunatum, Vitex negundo, Vitex trifolia, Duranta plumieri* are also found in certain areas.

DIVISION II—HERBACEAE

RANALES

Ranunculaceae

Naravelia zeylanica DC. Vathomkolli; Neendavalli (Tam) Kuruppakodi (Mal). A climbing shrub found in the forest areas.

Nymphaeaceae

Nymphaea stellata Willd. and *N. pubescens* Willd (Ambal, Mal) are aquatic herbs found in the paddy fields, ditches and tanks throughout the district.

Menispermaceae

Tiliacora acuminata Miers. Kodaparuva valli (Tam).

A large evergreen climbing shrub.

Cyclea peltata Diels; *Tinospora cordifolia* Miers; (Amruthu) *Cissampelos pariera* Linn (Malathangi),*Anamirta cocculus* W&A. (Nachenkuru) are found growing in forest and in open places.

ARISTOLOCHIALES

Aristolochiaceae

Aristolochia indica, Linn. Garudakodi.

A twining perennial with many medicinal properties.

Apama siliquosa Lamk. Thavasimurunga.

An erect herb with very reticulate distichous leaves. Found as an undergrowth in evergreen forests.

PIPERALES

Piperaceae

Piper nigrum L. Kurumulagu.

A root climber and is largely cultivated for the fruit throughout the district. Found growing on a wide variety of trees like *Artocarpus integra* (Pilavu), *Mangifera indica* (Mavu) *Macaranga indica* (Eppothi) *Artocarpus hirsuta* (Anjili), *Cycas* etc.

Piper betel L. Vettila.

Cultivated in shady places for the aromatic leaves. The tender leaves are used in medicine and also used by the people in chewing.

Piper longum L. Tippali.

A slender undershrub found growing as an undergrowth in evergreen forests.

Piper attenuatum Buch-Ham.

A slender climber with zig-zag branches and ovate cordate leaves.

Heckeria subpeltata Kunth. Attanari.

A large herbaceous shrub with cordate palmately nerved leaves and cylindrical spikes in pedunculate umbels. Found in the evergreen forests as an undergrowth.

RHOEDALES

Papaveraceae

Argemone mexicana Linn. Swarnasheery.

A prickly annual found growing on sandy soil and is rarely seen.

CRUCIALES

Cruciferae

Brassica juncea Hook f. & Thomas.

Found growing near dirty culverts and the back yards of dwellings.

CARYOPHYLLALES

Molluginaceae

This family is represented by *Mollugo oppositifolia* Linn, *Gisekia pharnaceoides* Linn. These are annual herbs found in waste places.

Portulacaceae

Portulaca oleracea Linn. Tharakeera.

A weed in wet areas. Other plants like *Portulaca grandiflora* and *Talinum cunneifolium* are grown in gardens.

POLYGONALES

Polygonaceae

Polygonum chinense Linn.

A rambling undershrub with variable leaves and white flowers. Common on the mountainous areas.

CHENOPODIALES

Amaranthaceae

Amaranthus gangeticus Linn. Cheera.

Cultivated as a vegetable.

A. Viridis Linn. Kuppa cheera.

A weed in waste places. Used also as a vegetable.

A. spinosus Linn. Mullencheera.

A weed growing luxuriantly in waste places on the very dirty outskirts of the town and suburban areas.

Achyranthes aspera and *Cyathula prostrata* are found growing as undergrowths in forest areas.

Celosia cristata, Gomphrena globosa, Telanthera ficoidea are grown in gardens.

LYTHRALES

Lythraceae

Lawsonia inermis Linn. Mailanchi.

A deciduous spiny shrub found growing as a hedge plant. The leaves yield the "henna" dye.

Rotala rotundifolia and *Ammania baccifera* are common herbs in the paddy fields and on the mud banks of rivers and canals.

Onagraceae

Jussieua repens Linn.

A floating water plant with white flowers.

Ludwigia prostrata Roxb.

A herb common in swamps.

GENTIANALES

Gentianaceae

Limnanthemum cristatum Griseb.

A floating water plant with cordate leaves.

Enicostemma littorale Blume. Vellarugu.

An important medicinal herb in sandy coastal regions. Different species of *Exacum* and *Canscora* are found at higher elevations.

PRIMULALES

PLUMBAGINACEAE

Plumbago zeylanica Linn. Vellakoduveli.

A perennial herb with white tubular flowers and glandular persistent calyx.

UMBELLALES

Umbelliferae

Centelta asiatica Urban. Kodangal.

A common trailing weed with orbicular-cordate leaves found on the borders of rice fields.

Hydrocotyle javanica Thumb.

A prostrate herb in forest areas with lobed leaves.

Other plants like *Pimpinella heyneana* wall, etc. are found in the forest regions.

CAMPANALES

Campanulaceae

Sphenoclea zeylanica Gaertn.

A stout herb in swampy places. Flowers are greenish-yellow in close spikes.

Lobeliaceae

Lobelia trigona Roxb.

A glabrous prostrate annual with violet flowers common in wet places.

Lobelia nicotianaefolia Heyne.

A tall perennial or biennial herb with white flowers in cylindric racemes. Found growing in the ghat area on the way to Sultan's Battery.

ASTERALES

Compositae

This is the largest family of flowering plants and different genera are found growing throughout this district. A large number of species have become established in gardens and quite a large number of them like *Eupatorium, Ageratum, Blumea,* are undesirable weeds.

In the hilly regions *Vernonia monosis*. *Gynura nitida, Bidens pilosa, Emilia scabra, Spilanthes acmella, Blainvillea rhomboidea*, *Vernonia cinerea* are common. Plants like *Blumea lacera, Vicoa indica, Ageratum conyzoides, Eclipta alba, Synedralla nodiflora* are found growing on the plains.

Eupatorium spp. Obnoxious fast growing weed found growing luxuriantly throughout the district.

SOLANALES

Solanaceae

Solanum nigrum Linn. Mulaku-thakkali.

An erect annual herb with white flowers in umbellate cymes.

Solanum torvum swartz. Anachunda.

A shrub with variable leaves and bright yellow berries.

Solanum verbascifolium Linn.

A shrub with velvetty tomentose leaves. Common at high elevations.

Physalis minima and *Datura fastuosa* are the common weeds of this family.

Plants like *Capsicum annum*, *C. frutescens*, *solanum melongena* are cultivated for its fruits.

Convolvulaceae

Ipomoea cairica Sweet.

An elegant climber with palmately dissected leaves and large purple flowers common on hedges.

IPOMOEA CRASSICAULIS

A much branched shrub with milky latex and large white flowers.

Other species of *Ipomoea* like *I. pes-tigridis*, *I. reptans*, *I. pes-caprae*, *I. purpurea* etc. are found here and there.

PERSONALES

Sorophukariaceae

Moniera cunneifolia Michx. Neerbrahmi.

A succulent creeping herb in wet places.

Plants like*Vandellia scabra*, *Ilysanthes hyssopioides*, *Scoparia dulcis*, *Limnophila heterophylla*, *L. racemosa* are found growing as weeds.

Acanthaceae

Acanthus ilicifolius Linn. Chakkaramullu.

A shrub growing on the marshy banks of rivers. Leaves are pinnatifid and spinuous.

Asteracantha longifolia Nees. Vayal-chulli.

A tall spiny herb growing luxuriantly in marshy areas.

Adhatoda vasica Nees. Adalodakam.

A dense shrub cultivated in villages as a hedge plant. The leaves are used in medicine.

Barleria prionitis Linn. and *B. buxifolia* Linn. are prickly shrubs found growing on the road sides.

Common weeds of this family are *Andrographis paniculata*, *Asystasia gangetica*, *Justicia glauca*, *J. diffusa*, *J. procumbens* etc.

Lentibulariaceae

Utricularia flexuosa Vahl.

A water plant with yellow flowers common in paddy fields.

U. reticulata Sm.

A beautiful twinning plant with blue-violet flowers common in paddy fields.

GERANIALES

Oxalidaceae

Oxalis corniculata Linn. Puliyarel.

A diffuse creeping weed with trifoliate leaves and yellow flowers.

Biophytum sensitivam DC. Thindavadi.

An annual weed with radical leaves. The leaves are pinnately compound and the leaf-lets respond to the stimulus of touch.

Balsaminaceae

Impatiens balsamina Linn.

A wild form of the garden Balsam with variable leaves and flowers.

Different species *Impatiens* are found growing in the moist areas.

POLEMONIALES

Hydrophyllaceae

Hydrolea zeylanica Vahl.

An annual herb with bright blue flowers common in wet places.

BORAGINALES

Boraginaceae

Heliotropium indicum Linn. Thekkada.

An annual weed with flowers in long scorpioid cymes. Plants like *H. scabrum, Coldenia procumbens, Ehretia microphylla* are also seen in this district.

LAMIALES

Labiatae

Leucas. This genus is represented by many species and is found throughout the district. In the plains *Leucas aspera* is a very common weed and in the hilly areas species like *L. linifolia, L. ciliata* etc. are seen. Other nasty smelling weeds like *Hyptis suaveolens, Pogostemon paniculatus, Anisomeles indica* are common in this district.

Ocimum sanctum Linn. Tulasi.

Cultivated as a sacred plant on pedastals at Hindu houses. *Ocimum basilicum, O. canum* are found growing wild.

MONOCOTYLEDONES

CALYCIFERAE

Butomales

Hydrocharitaceae.

Ottelia alismoides Pers.

A submerged aquatic herb with dimorphic leaves.

Vallisneria spiralis, Hydrilla verticillata, Blyxa octandra are common aquatic weeds found growing at the bottom of pools and tanks.

Alismatales

Alismataceae.

Sagittaria guayanensis H.B.K.

An erect aquatic weed with floating cordate leaves and flowers with white petals.

APONOGETONALES

Aponogetonaceae

Aponogeton natans. Engl. and Kr.

A submerged aquatic weed with floating linear—lanceolate leaves and pink flowers in spikes.

COMMELINALES

Commelinaceae

Commelina benghalensis Linn.

A common succulent creeping weed with normal blue flowers and naked white underground flowers.

Aneilema dimorphum Dalz.

A common weed near the paddy fields.

Cyanotis cristata Schult. f.

A prostrate terrestrial herb.

Cyanotis axillaris Roem & Sch.

A prostrate herb rooting at the nodes. Flowers are in axillary fascicles.

Zebrina pendala.

A common garden plant with violet stems.

BROMELIALES

Bromeliaceae

Ananas sativus Schult. Kadachakka.

Different varieties are cultivated in some localities

ZINGIBERALES

Musaceae

Musa paradisiaca L.

A quick growing annual herb reaching a height of about 10-15 ft. The fruits are very delicious when ripe. Different varieties like Matty, Monthan, Poovan, Palayanthodan etc. are cultivated.

M. paradisiaca var. *Sapientum* L. Ethan. Nenthravazha.

Extensively cultivated throughout the district.

Musa superba Roxb. Wild plantain.

Found on the rocky hillsides.

Zingiberaceae

Hedychium coronarium Koen.

Tuberous herb. Flowers are pure white and fragrant.

Zingiber officinale Rosc. Inchi.

Cultivated for the underground tubers. The tubers are used in medicine and in curries. Peeled tubers mixed with quick lime, dried in the sun is the "chukku" of commerce. *Z. zerumbet, Costus speciosus, Alpinia galanga* etc. are found growing in restricted localities.

Elletaria cardamomum Mdt. Elam.

Cultivated for the valuable capsules. The seeds are aromatic and used as a spice.

Cannaceae

Canna indica Linn.

Grown as a garden plant.

Marantaceae

Schumanianthus virgatus Rolf.

A bamboo-like shrub common in the evergreen forests.

COROLLIFERAE

Liliaceae

Chlorophytum malabaricum Baker.

Perennial herbs with radical leaves.

CHLORO

C. laxum R.Br.

A grass like perennial herb with filiform scape.

Aloe vera Linn. Katta vazha.

An introduced plant. Rarely seen in gardens

Gloriosa superba Linn. Mendoni.

Climbing herbaceous annual common on hedges.

Asparagus racemosus Wild. Satavari.

A very scandent undershrub. The roots are tuberous. Large quantities of the tubers are collected from different places near Malappuram and Nilambur for the preparation of certain Ayurvedic medicine.

Pondederiaceae

Monochoria vaginalis Presl. Karinkuvalam.

A common weed in paddy fields.

Eichhornia crassipes Solms. Kudakkapayal.

A floating weed with bulbous petioles.

Smilacaceae

Smilax zeylanica Linn.

A climbing wiry shrub.

ARALES

Araceae

Acorus calamus Linn. Vayambu.

A marsh herb with aromatic creeping root stock.

Pothos scandens Linn. Ana paruga.

A root climber common on the main trunks of large trees.

Remusatia vivipara Schott.

A tuberous herb. Propagation chiefly by bulbils borne on leafless shoots arising from the sides of the tuber.

Colocasia antiquorum Schott. Chembu.

A tuberous cultivated plant.

There are different cultivated varieties like Tamarakannan, Kannan, Karkadaka chempu, Kolambichembu, Karumchempu, Vella chempu etc.

Pistia stratiotes Linn. Muttapayal.

A floating water plant common in tanks and paddy fields. Plants like *Caladium bicolor, Spathiphyllum* sp. *Anthurium* sp. are found in some of the gardens.

Dioscoreales

Dioscorea spp.

Different species are cultivated for the edible tubers. Some of them are *D. alata* L. (Kachil), *D. spinosa* Roxb. (Mukkilangu), *D. esculenta* Bark Kilangu. Nanakilangu. *D. bulbifera* L. var. Sativa Pr. & B. Erachikkachil, Muttakachil.

PALMALES

Palmae

Cocos nucifera L. Thengu. Nalikeram.

A tall straight palm with an apical crown of foliage. Cultivated throughout the district. The whole tree is of economic value.

Areca catechu L. Kamuku.

A tall straight slender palm. Large plantations are seen in the interior and also found growing in the coastal areas. The nuts are very valuable.

Corypha umbracaulifera L. Kodappana.

A magnificent monocarpic palm with very large fan-like leaves. Found growing in localities near Nilambur.

Caryota urens Linn. Olattipana.

A tall palm with smooth cylindrical stem. The leaves are large, bipinnate and the leaf-lets are fan-shapped. The inflorescene is very large and much branched.

Borassus flabellifer. Linn. Karimpana.

A stout tall palm with large fan shaped leaves. Outer wood is very hard and used for making rafters etc. The pulp of the fruit is edible.

Phoenix sylvestris Roxb.

The stem of this palm is closely clothed with the persistent leaf bases seen in the arid regions of the district.

Calamus rotang Linn. Chural.

A slender thorn straggler found in the interior of the forest. Stem used for making chairs, and a variety of other purposes.

PANDANALES

Pandanaceae

Pandanus tectorius soland. Kaitha.

A branched shrub with aerial roots. The leaves are tristichous and beset with spines on the margins and on the keel beneath. Found on the borders of all paddy fields.

ORCHIDALES

Orchidaceae

Vanda tessellata Hook. Maravazha.

An epiphytic orchid with numerous velamen roots. Common on many trees found on the road sides.

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. Different species of Habenaria are found growing at higher elevations.

Plants like *Calanthe masuca, Epiglottis plicata* etc. are often grown as ornamental plants.

GLUMIFLORAE

Cyperales

Cyperaceae.

Cyperus haspan, C. iria, C. exaltatus, Eleocharis plantaginea, E. capitata, Fimbristylis dichotoma, F. junciformis, Scirpus articulatus are the most common weeds in rice fields and swampy places.

Kyllinga monocephala, Cyperus aristatus, C. distans, Mariscus dubius, Bulbostylis barbata are the common weeds on land.

Scleria lithosperma Sw.

A perennial herb with a woody rhizome.

Hypolytrum latifolium L.C.

A robust perennial herb with triangular stem.

GRAMINALES

Gramineae

Bambusae

Bambusa arundinacea Willd. Mula.

A straggler with a thick rhizome. The culms reach 80-100 ft. in height. Flowers appear at long intervals and the plant dies down. All the trees in an area produce flowers at a time. There was such an outburst of flower in the later part of 1961.

Ochlandra travancorica Ganble. Etta.

Very common in the evergreen forest covering large areas.

Eragrosteae...

Eleusine coracana Gaertn. Koovaragu.

Cultivated in the dry and hilly parts of the district. The grain is an important article of food for the poorer classes. Other members of this tribe like *Eleusine indica, Eragrostis plumosa, E. viscosa, E. gangetica, Leptochloa chinensis. Diplache fusca* are fodder grasses.

Sporaboleae and Chlorideae.

Plants belonging to this tribe like *Sporobolus diander Chloris barbata* was found growing as weeds in waste places. Also used as fodder.

Oryzae

Hygrorhiza aristata Nees.

A floating water plant with spongy leaf sheaths and capillary roots developing at the nodes.

Leersia hexandra Sw.

A perennial grass in marshy areas.

Oryza sativa Linn.

Different races are cultivated in wet fields for its edible grains. One of the major cultivated crops in the district.

Paniceae

Setaria palmifolia Stapf.

A tall perennial grass common on the hills.

S. pallidifusa stapf et Hubbard.

An annual grass. Used as fodder. *Paspalm scrobeculatum paspalidium flavidum, Echinochloa colona, Brachiaria ramosa, Panicum miliaceum* etc. are some of the fodder grass of the tribe.

Andropogoneae

Vetiveria zizanoides. Nash.

Largely cultivated in certain localities. The aromatic roots are used for making fans and mats. A valuable medicinal oil is extracted from the roots and is exported to foreign countries.

Cymbopogon nardus Rendle. *C. citratus* stapf. *C. flexuosus* wats. are aromatic herbs. The vegetative parts are used in the extraction of oil known as the lemon-grass oil, an important item of export.

FAUNA

Kozhikode District lying in the northern region of Kerala has the Western Ghats in all its majesty and grandeur to a greater extent than the southern regions with the possible exception of Palghat District. On the east are the Nilgiris and the Mysore ranges while on the west it has an extensive coast line affording great facilities for the development of the fishing industry. Naturally wild life is plentiful and the forests of Wynad and Nilambur are great favourite resorts of sports men. No new animals can be mentioned as peculiar to this region; yet a greater abundance of wild game and marine animals are noteworthy.

MAMMALIA

The Primates are represented by the monkeys and the loris.

1. *Kasi Johni*, the Nilgiri Langur (Mal. Karimkorangu) is a beautiful black monkey, once abundant in the mountain forests but fast thinning now because of over-shooting. They are not abundant anywhere except in the forests of Wynad and Nilambur.

2. *Macaca radiata*, the Bonnet monkey (Mal. Vella Korangu) is the commonest monkey in the low country and all over the jungles.

3. *Macaca silenus*, the Lion tailed monkey (Mal. Neela Korangu) is distinguished from all other monkeys by the long mane growing around the face. It inhabits the higher denser forests and is of shy habits so that it is not commonly seen.

4. *Loris gracilis*, the slender loris (Mal. Kuttithemangu) is much smaller and differs from the monkeys in the absence of the tail. It is of shy and retiring habits; it sleeps during the day hidden among the foliage; so, it is not frequently met with though it is not confined to dense forests. Superstition credits this weird creature, its blood and fur, with remarkable curative powers against all incurable diseases and they are frequently exhibited by quack medicine vendors all over the country.

The carnivora or the Beasts of Prey are the cats and the dogs all of which are fairly well represented. They are mostly nocturnal and are true forest animals.

1. *Panthera tigris*, the tiger (Mal. Kaduva, Puli, Varayan Puli) is found all along the Ghats especially in Wynad; yet not very common anywhere. It is highly destructive to larger game.

2. *Panthera Pardus* is the leopard (Mal. Pulli Puli). It is fairly common in the forests, especially in Mananthody in North Wynad. Occasionally they wander near cultivation and attack domestic cattle. They are expert climbers of trees and have the habit of basking in the morning sunshine. Melanism leading to a darker colouration and obliteration of the sports occasionally occurs, thus producing what are called Black panthers or Black leopards (Mal. Karimpuli).

3. *Felis Chaus,* the Jungle Cat (Mal. Kattu Poocha, Kattu Makkan). It occurs in the jungles but wanders into the low country and near human habitations they are a serious menace to poultry.

4. *Moschothera civettina* and *Viverricula indica* are the well known civets (Mal. Veruku) which are kept in captivity for the sake of their secretion, a kind of musk which is highly valued as a medicine and perfume. These were once fairly common at the edges of the forest; but are now quite rare.

5. *Paradoxurus hermaphroditus,* the Palm civet or Toddy cat, (Mal. Marapatty). They climb palm trees and steal the toddy collected in the tapper's pots; they do much harm in coffee plantations by eating and destroying the berries. They also steal poultry and work considerable havoc among them.

6. *Herpestes edwardsii,* the Grey Mungoose or common Mungoose (Mal. Keeri,), is the commonest Mongoose found all over the country.

7. *Herpestes fuscus,* the Brown Mungoose.

8. *Herpestes smithi,* the Ruddy Mungoose.

Both the latter ones are called in Malayalam Chenkeeri and are confined to the forests. All these Mungooses have similar habits. They are immune to snake poison to a certain extent, though not absolutely as popularly believed. They are very skilful in successfully attacking snakes of even the most venomous type. They are able to do this mainly by their extreme agility in evading bites, leaping to a side as the snake strikes and rushing to seize the head of the snake before it can strike again. This is also helped to a certain extent by the stiff erectile hairs which cover the body giving it an exaggerated bulk which makes the snake strike short and miss which gives the Mungoose its chance.

9. *Hyaena hyaena,* the striped hyaena (Mal. Chennai) once common in the higher open forests is now confined to the forests bordering the Nilgiris.

10. *Canis indicus,* Jackals (Mal. Oolan, Kurukkan, Kuru nari). These are quite familiar animals roaming over hilly scrubs and low country as well, doing much injury to poultry and plantations.

11. *Cyon decanensis,* the wild dogs (Mal. Chennai) are fairly common in the forests going out in packs; they are very destructive to small game.

12. *Melursus ursinus,* the sloth bear (Mal. Karadi) is a common beast in the well wooded areas.

13. *Lutra vulgaris,* the otter (Mal. Neer—Naye) is the only aquatic carnivore in this area and is seen along the hill streams and rivers living in the banks in burrows and feeding on fish.

The *Ungulata* are the hoofed animals and are well represented.

1. *Bibos gaurus,* the Gaur (Mal. Kattupothu) sometimes called the Indian Bison, is the most majestic and powerful, of the ungulates. They are fairly common in the shaded forests all over the land but specially in the Chedleth reserves and in Wynad and less commonly in Nilambur. They descend to the lower and more open places during the rains.

2. *Muntiacus muntiac,* the Barking deer.

3. *Rusa unicolor,* the sambar (Mal. Kalaman) is the largest of the deer tribe.

4. *Axis axis,* the spotted deer (Mal. Pulliman) is abundant especially in the Nilambur forests.

5. *Moschiola meminna* is the small deer called Mouse deer or Chevrotain (Mal. Kezha man). It is our smallest deer being not more than ten inches in height. It is widely distributed but being retiring and nocturnal in habits, is not frequently met with.

6. *Hemitragus hylocrius,* the Nilgiri Tahr (Mal. Kattadu) This is the only wild goat in this area but it is interesting that its nearest relatives occur only in the Himalayas.

7. *Sus cristatus,* the wild Boar (Mal. Kattu Panni) is abundant all along the foot of the hills and near cultivation the harm they do is immense. Fairly large herds occur along the Nilgiri and Mysore borders. The males are larger, fierce and possess powerful tusks.

Proboscidea are represented by the Elephants. They are plentiful in these forests especially in Chedleth reserves of Wynad and forests of Nilambur. They generally confine themselves to the denser forests but in the rainy season they descend to the cultivated slopes in herds and can do considerable harm to cultivation.

Among the little known and yet interesting members of the smaller mammals, the following may be mentioned.

1. *Manis pentadactyla*, the Pangolin or Scaly anteater (Mal. Alunku), is a fairly common animal in the jungles and forests, though not commonly met with. It has a curiously armoured body composed of imbricating scales and short limbs with incurved claws which makes its gait so clumsy. If surprised during its nocturnal wanderings it rolls up its body presenting the sharp edged scales on all sides defying all enemies.

2. *Paraechinus nudiventris*, the hedgehog, is found all over the drier areas.

3. *Vesperugo abranus*, the common insectivorous bat is found every where.

4. *Pteropus*, is the large fruit eating bat popularly called flying foxes.

5. *Hystrix leucura*, the Porcupine (Mal. Mullan Panni) is a well known animal in the hills and jungles, often wandering into cultivated country. Its body is covered over with long sharp edged erectile spines.

6. Squirrels are universally distributed. The commonest is the Palm squirrel *Funambulus palmarum*. The large forest squirrel is *Ratufa macroura* (Mal. Malayannan) confined to the forests.

7. Flying squirrels are also common. The large flying squirrel *Pteromys (Petaurista) oral* is found in the dense forests. *Petinomys fusco capillus* also lives in the forests. The flying squirrels especially the former, called locally "Paren" invades coconut gardens destroying large numbers of the growing tender coconuts.

8. Hares are plentiful at the foothills and cultivated slopes.

9. Rats and mice are common all over. *Mus rattus* is the common rat. *Tatera indica* is the notorious pest, Bandicoot (Mal. Panni eli, Thurappan.). *Rattus rattus* is the House Rat while the smaller *Mus musculus* is the Mouse.

BIRDS

The Bird fauna of this District is rich. All the birds that have been described for the Trivandrum District are met with here too with certain additions and variations in the abundance or otherwise. The commonest of these are listed below. Common birds around cultivated and inhabited areas include the following:—

Corvus macrorhynchus—The Jungle crow.
Corvus splendens—The House crow.
Dendrocitta—Tree pie.

Dicrurus	The King crow.
Dissemurus	The Raquet tailed king crow.
Turdoides	The Babblers, seven sisters.
Acridotheres	The common Myna.
Motacilla lugubris	The common wagtail.
Copsychus saularis	The Magpie Robin.
Brachypternus bengalensis	The Golden backed wood pecker.
Dryobates mahrattensis	The yellow fronted Pied wood pecker.
Hemicircus cordatus	The Malabar Heart spotted wood pecker.
Centropus sinensis	The crow pheasant (Coucal).
Upupa epops	The common Hoopoe.

Among the most colourful and beautiful of the common birds the following may be mentioned.

Tchitrea paradisi	The Paradise flycatcher.
Rhipidura	The Fantail flycatcher.
Tephrodornis	Shrikes.
Oriolus	The oriole or Mangobirds.
Cinnyris asiatica	The sunbird.
Pitta brachyura	The Indian Pitta.
Psittacula krameri	The rose ringed Green Parakeet manillensis.
Psittacula cyanocephalus	The Blossom headed Parakeet.
Psittacula columboides	The Blue winged Parakeet.
Coryllis vernalis	The Loriquet or Love-bird.
Coracias bengalensis	The Indian Roller or Blue Jay.
Merops orientalis	The Indian Bee-eater.
Halcyon smyrnensis	The white breasted King fisher.
D ichoceros bicornis	The great hornbill.
Tochus griseus	The Malabar grey hornbill.

Some common birds are more readily recognised by their characteristic calls and songs than by sight. Among them the following may be mentioned.

Megalaima haemacephala	The crimson breasted barbet or the Copper smith.
Magalaima viridis	The green barbet.
Caprimulgus asiaticus	The Indian nightgar.
Cuculus micropterus	The Indian cuckoo.
Cacomantis merulinus	The Plaintive cuckoo or whistling school boy.
Hierococoyx varius	The Hawk cuckoo or Brain fever bird.
Eudynamis scolopaceus	The Indian Koel.
Molpastes	The Red vented bulbul.
Otocompsa	The Red whiskered bulbul.
Alauda gulgula	The Indian Skylark.
Anthus	The Indian Pipit.
Orthotomus sutorius	The tailor bird.

The owls are nocturnal birds of prey. The commonest among them are the following.—

Athene brama	The Spotted owlet.
Otus bakkamoena	The collared scops owl.

Strix indranee	The Brown wood owl.
Ketupa zeylonensis	The Brown Fish owl.
Huhua nipalensis	The Forest Eagle owl.
Ninox scutulata	The South Indian Hawk owl.

Typical birds of prey are:—

Haliastur indus	The Brahminy kite.
Milvus govinda	The Pariah kite.
Spilornis cheela	The crested serpent eagle.
Spizaetus cirrhatus	The Indian crested Hawk eagle.
Ictinaetus perniger	The Black eagle.
Falco tinnunculus	The India Kestrel.
Sarcogyps calvus	The Black vulture.
Pseudogyps bengalensis	The white backed vulture.

Common Pigeons met with are:—

Columba livia	The Blue Rock pigeon.
Streptopelia chinensis	The Indian spotted dove.
Chalcophaps indica	The Indian Emerald dove.
Ducula badia cuprea	Jerdons Imperial pigeon.
Dendrophassa Pompadora affinis	The Green pigeon.

Among the sporting birds we have the following as residents.

Gallus sonneratii	The Grey Jungle fowl.
Prdicula asiatica	The Jungle Bush quail.
Ferancolinus Pondicerianus	The grey partridge.
Galloperdix spadicea	The Red spur fowl.
Pavo cristatus	The Pea fowl.
Amurornis phoenicurus	The water hen.
Gallinula chloropus	The Indian moor hen.
Porphyrio poliocephalus	The purple moor hen.
Metopidius indicus	The Bronze winged Jacana.
Hydrophasianus chirurgus	The Pheasant tailed Jacana.
Lobivanellus indicus	The Red wattled lapwing.
Lobivanellus malabarica	The Yellow wattled lapwing
Charadrius dubius	The Little ringed plover.
Ardeola grayii	The Paddy bird (Pond heron).
Ixobrychus cinnamomus	The Chestnut bittern.
Ixobrychus sinensis	The Yellow bittern.
Nycticorax nycticorex	The Night heron.
Anhinga melanogaster	The Snake bird.
Podiceps ruficollis	The Little Grebe (Dabchick).

As winter visitors we have the following sporting birds:—

Thalasseus bengalensis	The small crested Tern.
Thalasseus bergii velox	The larger crested Tern.
Tringa glareola	The sand pipers.
Capella nemoricola	The wood snipe.
Scolopax rusticola	The wood cock.
Dendrocygna Javanica	The whistling Teal;
Anas crecca	The common teal.

REPTILES

No reptiles are peculiar to this District.The commoner species that are met with are enumerated. Common Lizards include the following:—

Calotes versicolor	The Garden lizard.
Calotes ophimachus	The Green lizard.
Sitana pondiceriana	The Brown lizard.
Chameleon zeylanicus	The Chameleon.
Draco	The Flying lizard or Flying dragon.
Gecko	The House lizard.
Mabuia carinata	The Common Skink.
Varanus bengalensis	The Monitor Lizard.

The Common non-poisonous Snakes are the following:—

Typhlops braminus	The burrowing Snake.
Python molurus	The Python.
Eryx johnii	The Eryx.
Rhinophis	
Sylibura	The Shield tailed Snakes.
Ptyas mucosus	The Rat snake.
Lycodon	The common wolf Snake.
Nerodia piscator	The fresh water Snake.
Rhabdophis stolatus	
Coluber helena	
Dendrophis	The tree Snake.
Dendrelaphis	The tree snake.
Oligodon	
Dryophis mycterizans	The Green whip Snake.
Dryophis pulvernlentus	The Brown whip Snake.
Dipsas	
Chrysopelea ornata	The Golden Snake or leaping Snake.
Hurria rhynchops	

The following are the highly poisonous snakes in this District.

Naia naia	The Cobra.
Hemibungarus migrescens	The Indian Coral Snake.
Naia hannah	The King Cobra.
Bungarus candidus	The Krait.
Sea Snakes	*Enhydrina valakadienj*
	Hydrophis Spiralis.
	Enhydris Curtis.
Vipers	*Vipera russelli,*—Russel's Viper:
	Trimeresurus macrolepis the arboreal pit Viper.

AMPHIBIA

Frogs and toads are well represented. The Common Frogs are:—

Rana tigrina	The Bull frog.
Rana hexadactyla	The common frog.
Rana cyanophlictis	
Rhacophorus maculatus	The flying frog.
Rhacophorus malabaricus	The flying frog.

Cacopus	The Burrowing frog.
Ixalus	
Toads	*Bufo melanostictus*—common toad. *Bufo parietalis*.

PISCES

Both marine and fresh water fishes are abundant and fishery provides occupation and food for a large number of people. Below is a list of common fishes with their familiar English names and local Malayalam equivalents, wherever available. Malayalam names are given in brackets.

BONY FISHES

Lates Calcarifer	Nair fish	(Nari meen)
Serranus	..	(Chempally, Kalli meen)
Ambassis	..	(Mullen Choora)
Therapon	..	(Keeran)
Pristipoma	..	(Pulli Keeran)
Upeneoides	Goat fish	(Cherul meen)
Chanos	White mullet	(Poo meen)
Sciaena	Jew fish	(Kora, Cherukora)
Polynemus	Indian Salmon	(Bameen)
Otolithus	..	(Palli kora)
Sphyraena	..	(Chelavu)
Trichiurus	Ribbon fish	(Thalayan)
Rostrelliger	Mackerel	(Ila)
Cybium	Seer fish	(Ayakora)
Echeneis	Sucker fish	(Putti meen)
Stromataeus	Pomfrets	(Avoli)
Caranx	Horse mackerel	(Para)
Equula	Silver bellies	(Mullam, Paral Kurchi)
Ophiocephalus	Snake head	(Viral)
Belone	Gar fish	(Kolan)
Hemirhamphus	Gar fish	(Kolan)
Cynoglossus	Sole, Flat fish	(Nalla manthal)
Synaptura	Sole, Flat fish	(Pulli manthal)
Arius	Cat fish	(Etta)
Wallago	Cat fish	(Attu Vaala)
Chirocentrus	Dorab	(Mullu Vaala)
Clupea	Oil sardine	(Chala, Mathi)
Engraulis	White baits	(Manangu)
Hippocampus	Sea horse	(Kadal Kuthira)

CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

Chiloscyllium	Dog fish	(Udumban Sravu)
Scoliodon	Dog fish	(Sravu)
Pristis	Saw fish	(Komban Sravu)
Rhynchobatus	Skate	(Varithala)
Rhinobatus	Skate	(Kakara Sravu)
Narcine	Electric Ray	(Thirachy)
Trygon	Sting Ray	(Valan Thirundy)
Actobatis	Eagle Ray	(Kaka Thirundy)

INVERTEBRATA

The Invertebrates are also well represented. The Coelenterates are represented by the abundant anemones and zoophytes along the coasts while the Annelids are represented by the marine bristle worms, burrowing and tube making marine worms, terrestrial earthworms and the leeches. The Arthropoda are a vast group which because of their great economic interest have been well studied. Practically the same species that have been described in the Trivandrum and Trichur faunistic accounts are found here also and so a fresh enumeration and description is not necessary.

The Mollusca is a large group of the Invertebrates well represented along these shores. They have not been dealt with in the previous accounts and as they are particularly evident along the coasts of this District, they are considered here.

The mollusca are soft bodied animals without any segmentation. Most of them have a shell of lime protecting them. The colour and patterns on these shells make the mollusca attractive to field collectors of curiosities and many of these are used for adornment. The shells also yield lime for making mortar and cement and the flesh of some species is eaten. The group is divided into 5 classes.

1. Amphineura—primitive mollusca which have no shell, or if shell is present it is in the form of eight transverse plates.

2. Gastropoda—the snails which have shells in one piece generally coiled into a spiral.

3. Scaphopoda—Here the shell is tubular, slightly tapering and so popularly called elephant tusk shells.

4. Lamellibranchiata—the Bivalves, where the shell is of two similar pieces or valves.

5. Cephalopoda—the active swimming squids, sepias and Octopuses. Some have no shells; others have internal shells while one group has external shell.

Amphineura. They are the 'coat of mail' mollusca commonly called chitons. They live adhering to rocks submerged in the shallow water by their ventral flat muscular foot. The shell is on the dorsal side and is composed of eight transverse plates arranged in a single row. When dislodged from their place of attachment, they roll up into a

ball. Species of *Ischnochiton* and *Plaxiphora* can be found all along the coasts where there are submerged rocks.

Gastropoda. Generally they have a spirally coiled shell and the mouth of the shell may be closed by an operculum. Along the coast we can see the limpets—*Patella* (*cellana*) *radiata*—living on the rocks between the tide marks. They adhere so firmly to the rocks by their broad sucker like foot that it is very difficult to dislodge them. They feed on the sea weeds growing on these rocks. The keyhole limpet (*Diodora*) and the slit limpet (*Emarginula*) live on the rocks in deeper water and are much more rare. A small ear shell, *Haliotis varia* is occasionally met with on the submerged rocks. Species of *Trochus* (Top shells) and *Turbo* (Turban shells) are common along the coasts but the shells are rather small compared to those from other coasts. These shells are thick and pearly within and the larger specimens are collected and used in button-manufacture.

Umbonium vestiarin has a small but beautifully variegated and polished shell and is seen in large numbers at the mouths of rivers and back waters. Periwinckles are tiny turbo-like shells with a horny operculum occurring along some shores in large numbers: they can live for long periods out of water. Allied to them is *Cremnoconchus* which has entirely given up sea life and taken to land. The commonest screw shells are *Turritella duplicata,* a long elegantly tapered shell without any tubercles commonly seen cast along the shores.

Strombus canarium is the common wing shell along our coasts while the allied *Lambis lambis* is the scorpion shell or Five-Fingered chank. *Xenophora* has a thin shell but has a curious protective device of cementing small dead shells to the spire. *Natica* is common on sandy shores where they feed on the burrowing bivalves. Their egg mass is peculiar—in the form of a broad spiral sandy ribbon, a very common object along the coasts. An allied form is *Sigaretus*. Delicate shells of the beautiful violet blue *Ianthina* which is pelagic in habits are seen often cast ashore.

Cowries are amongst the best known of Indian mollusca. These are highly polished molluscan shells in a great variety of colouration and are really beautiful objects highly valued as ornamental and fancy articles. They live on rocky ground in the proximity of coral reefs. The small money cowry *Cypraea moneta* is fairly common and was once used for

barter. *C. ocellata* is another small species with conspicuous dots on the shell. Larger species are C. *tigris*, the tiger cowrie, *C. arabica* and *C. mauritiana* .

The sacred chank *Xancus* (*Turbinella*) *pyrum* occurs abundantly off the coasts especially where they are rocky. They are commercially used for making bangles, rings etc., in addition to their traditional use as trumpets in temple worship and as amulets to avert "the evil eye".

Bullia vittata (Nassidae) may be seen crawling over the wet sand with their broad leaflike foot burrowing into it. The handsome spiny shelled *Murex tenuispina* is very common; a spineless species *M. haustellum* called the woodcock shell is occasionally met with. *Thais bufo* and *T. rudolphi* are familiar littoral shells living amongst rocks. Their empty shells are used by the hermit crabs to house their defenceless abdomen. *Oliva gibbosa* and the smaller *Oliva nebulosa* have highly polished shells with marbled colouring. In shape they are almost cylindrical with a short pyramidal spire and long narrow mouth opening. The suture between the whorls is channelled. The conical shells (conidae) with a truncated spire, are fairly common; these snails are provided with poison glands. The bubble shells (Bullidae) are represented by *Bulla ampulla* which in life does not show up the shell at all; it is kept covered by the swollen lobes of the foot. The sea butterflies (Pteropods) occur in large shoals in the surface waters of the sea. A common type is *Creseis* with glassy quiver like shell and broad wing-like foot.

Several species of nudibranchs occur along the coasts among the weed clad rocks washed by the tide but practically little is known about them. They are without any shell and the gills take the form of external processes. They are mostly of brilliant colours and are really beautiful objects though very fragile and easily damaged in handling. *Doris, Tethys, Melibe* and *Aeolis* are some of the types commonly met with.

Pulmonata. These are typical terrestrial gastropods excepting those that have secondarily taken to water. *Ariophanta* and *Helix* are the common land snails. Species of the former, *Ariophanta basileus*, called the Imperial snail is found in the dense humid forests. These land snails are seen on various plants clinging to the branches and during summer months are known to close up the mouths of their shells with a secretion and enter their summer sleep (aestivation).

The slugs are represented by *Limax* and *Vaginulus* found in moist situations among decaying leaves, humus etc.

Fresh-water Gastropods.

Vivipara dissimilis is a freshwater snail with a shell like that of turbo but thin and olive green in colour, living in tanks and streams. *Pila Globosa* is the apple snail or pond snail abundant in old tanks and paddy fields. It is a true amhibious creature having a gill for breathing under water and a lung for breathing atmospheric oxygen. Masses of its white globular shelled eggs may be found on the banks of tanks and paddy fields.

Elongated shells of *Telescopium* and a species of *Potamides* and *Cerithium* occur along the muddy shores of backwaters.

Some pulmonates, typical terrestrial gastropods, have taken secondarily to freshwater life. They are *Limnaea* and *Planorbis,* the former with an elongated spiral shell and the latter with a flat spiral shell.

Scaphopoda. These are deep water mollusca whose empty shells are frequently cast ashore. Elegant white conical tubular shells with a gentle curve simulating a miniature Elephant tusk—hence the popular name, Elephant tusk shells—belonging to different species of *Dentalium* are seen along the coasts.

Lamellibranchiata. or Bivalves—mollusca with the shell in two valves. *Mytilus viridis,* the green mussel and allied species occur all along the rocky coasts and are collected for food by the fisherfolk. Common Oysters are *Ostera virginiana* and *Ostera cucullata*—the former considered as a valuable food and cultivated in suitable localities.

Cockles (*cardium asiaticum*) are common all along sandy coasts. Boring molluscs too are common. *Pholas orientalis* bores into soft rock; a smaller species, *Pholas backeri* is more common. An allied species *Martesia* bores into floating wood. The most notorious of the borers however is *Teredo,* the ship worm, the body of which is astonishingly modified for boring into wood, attacking and destroying wood used for piers, jetties and the bottoms of canoes and boats.

Lamellidens marginalis is the common fresh water mussel, plentiful in the beds of rivers and tanks. The pearly layer of this is used in button manufacture. The flesh is eaten. *Meretix* and *Villorita* are clams found in the backwaters and river mouths. In certain places they occur in great abundance

and are collected for the flesh which is edible and the shells which are burnt for making lime and cement.

Cephalopoda include the Octopuses, cuttle fishes, squids and the pearly Nautilus. A few small species of Octopuses occur crawling among the rocks and hiding in empty Oyster shells. Larger species occur along the shallow shores and probably a larger distinct species ascends the estuaries of rivers in summer.

The cuttle fish *Sepia* and the squid *Loligo* occur along the coasts in shoals at certain seasons and are fished and sold for food. The thin horny transparent shell of *Loligo* is internal and in shape looks like an elegant quill pen. Internally there is an ink bag also, the secretion of which is used by the animal to create a "Smoke Screen" under cover of which it can escape from its enemies. The presence of this curious ink bag and pen has given it its popular name—the pen and ink fish. The skeleton of *Sepia* on the other hand is massive and calcareous being formed of numerous thin overlapping plates of calcium carbonate. It is used for cleaning and polishing and also in Pharmacy. The 'ink' of *Sepia* is also used in the preparation of *Sepia* paint used by artists.

CLIMATE

The District has a humid climate with an oppressive hot season. It has no real cold season, but has plentiful and well distributed seasonal rainfall. The hot season from March to May is followed by the southwest monsoon season from June to September. October and November form the post monsoon or the retreating monsoon season. The period from December to February may be called the northeast monsoon season, although the rains cease after December.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the District are available for 8 stations for most of which the data extend to 90 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the District as a whole are given in Tables I and II. The average annual rainfall in the district is 3461.3 mm (136.27"). The rainfall is comparatively lesser in the southern portions of the District (Tirurangadi-Manjeri-Nilambur region) than in the rest of the District. In this portion of the District the rainfall generally decreases as one proceeds eastwards from the coast. But in the rest of the District, the rainfall increases from the southwest to northeast. About 76% of the annual rainfall is

received in the southwest monsoon months of June to September. Usually heavy showers occur with the onset of the southwest monsoon towards the end of May. The rainfall in the first month of the monsoon is heavy and it amounts to a quarter of the annual total of rainfall. The rainfall in July is heavier still and thereafter it decreases with the advance of the season. A good amount of rain, mostly as thundershowers, occurs in May and in the retreating monsoon season.

The variation in the annual rainfall from year to year is not large. In the fifty year period 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 140% of the normal occurred in 1924, while 1906 was the year with the lowest rainfall which was 77% of the normal. In the same 50 year period only in three years the rainfall was less than 80% of the normal. Although considering the District as a whole no two consecutive years had rainfall less than 80% of the normal, at some individual stations particularly in the southern part of the District, two consecutive years with rainfall less than 80% of the normal have occurred once in the fifty year period. It will be seen from Table II that the rainfall of the District as a whole was between 3000 and 4000 mm (118.11" and 157.48") in 34 out of 50 years.

On an average there are 124 rainy days (i.e. days with rainfall of 2.5 mm—10 cents—or more) in an year in the District. This number varies from 116 at Nilambur to 142 at Kuttiadi.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the District was 617.2 mm (24.30") at Tirurangadi on May 19, 1882.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in the District is at Kozhikode. Records of temperature and other meteorological elements at this station may be taken as representative of the conditions in the whole District in general. The southwest monsoon season is the coolest part of the year. From October day temperature increases slowly till April which is the hottest in the year with the mean daily maximum temperature at 32.8°C (91.1°F). But the night temperature decreases gradually from November onwards till January when the mean daily minimum temperature is the lowest in the year. After January the night temperatures also increase. In the hot season, days are oppressive particularly in the interior of the

District. In the coastal region afternoon sea breezes relieve the heat. Afternoon thunderstorms in April and May also bring welcome change. The highest maximum temperature ever recorded at Kozhikode was 37.2°C (99.0°F) on 17th May 1920, while the lowest minimum temperature was 16.1°C (61.0°F) recorded on 27th November 1901, 12th December 1895 and 25th February 1925.

Humidity

The air is highly humid throughout the year. In the southwest monsoon season the relative humidities are on the average 85% and above. In the retreating monsoon period there is a slight decrease in humidity. In the rest of the year the relative humidities are lesser still and are on the average between 65 and 80%.

Cloudiness

In the south west monsoon season, skies are generally heavily clouded to overcast. In April and the retreating monsoon months of October and November moderate to heavy cloudiness prevails. In the rest of the year, clear or lightly clouded skies are more common.

Winds

Winds are generally light to moderate with some strengthening in the southwest monsoon season. Winds are stronger in the afternoons during the months January to May. In the southwest monsoon months winds blow mainly from west or northwest. In other seasons northeasterly or easterly winds are more common in the mornings, while in the afternoons winds blow from directions between southwest and northwest.

Special weather phenomena

Thunderstorms occur in the summer months and in the post monsoon and early northeast monsoon seasons. Occasional squalls occur in the monsoon months and in association with thunderstorms in summer and post-monsoon months. In association with some storms in the Arabian sea in May and June and to a greater extent in the post monsoon months, the District gets heavy rain and along the coastal region high squally winds are experienced.

Tables III, IV and V give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and the frequency of special weather phenomena respectively for Kozhikode.

TABLE—I

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL

Station	No. of years of data		January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August*
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Kozhikode ..	50	a	11.7	8.4	18.5	86.9	261.6	824.2	857.3	439.7
		b	0.7	0.3	0.8	4.9	9.0	24.2	26.6	19.7
Manjeri ..	50	a	8.1	4.3	20.1	75.9	197.9	711.2	832.9	424.9
		b	0.5	0.3	1.1	4.5	8.2	22.9	25.8	19.4
Nilambur ..	50	a	6.6	5.8	13.2	61.0	157.5	636.5	861.6	433.1
		b	0.5	0.4	1.1	4.3	7.6	21.8	26.1	19.8
Vayitiri ..	50	a	9.9	9.4	24.6	105.4	195.1	1023.6	1499.4	778.5
		b	0.8	0.7	2.3	8.2	10.3	24.1	27.9	24.0
Badagara ..	50	a	7.6	6.3	15.0	77.7	261.6	955.0	1001.3	523.7
		b	0.6	0.3	1.0	4.5	9.6	24.6	27.1	20.8
Kuttiyadi .	50	a	13.7	9.7	25.9	122.7	295.1	1027.4	1278.1	741.7
		b	1.0	0.5	1.6	6.8	11.4	25.0	28.0	24.5
Quilandi ..	50	a	8.9	4.1	16.0	69.3	257.3	892.3	949.7	512.6
		b	0.6	0.3	0.9	3.9	9.3	24.7	26.4	21.0
Tirurangadi ..	50	a	5.3	6.1	14.2	72.1	242.1	760.7	765.6	390.1
		b	0.5	0.4	1.1	4.0	9.0	24.2	25.6	19.4
Kozhikode (Dist.) ..		a	9.0	6.8	18.4	84.0	233.5	853.9	1005.9	530.5
..		b	0.7	0.4	1.2	5.0	9.3	23.9	26.7	21.1

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 1.5 mm.or more)

	No. of years of data		September	October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Lowest annual rainfall of % as normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
										Amount (mm)	Date
			11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Kozhikode	50	a	220.0	262.6	156.7	30.5	3178.1	146 (1924)	75 (1928)	468.6	19th May 1882
		b	11.3	11.0	6.8	1.6	117.0				
Manjeri	50	a	201.7	308.1	170.2	30.5	2985.8	154 (1924)	69 (1935)	345.4	19th May 1882
		b	11.7	13.3	7.4	1.6	116.7				
Nilambur ..	50	a	191.3	280.9	133.1	28.5	2810.1	150 (1924)	65 (1939)	321.6	9th June 1941
		b	12.6	12.9	7.4	1.8	116.3				
Vayitiri ..	50	a	321.6	297.9	137.7	31.0	4435.1	146 (1924)	70 (1918)	396.2	6th July 1882
		b	16.8	14.4	8.0	2.3	139.8				
Badagara ..	50	a	231.4	258.6	143.0	23.9	3506.1	158 (1907)	73 (1928)	297.9	5th October 1912
		b	13.0	11.2	6.6	1.7	121.0				
Kuttiyadi ..	50	a	313.9	374.9	242.6	58.4	4504.3	137 (1924)	77 (1906)	419.3	3rd June 1924
		b	15.4	15.5	9.3	2.8	141.8				
Quilandi ..	50	a	224.0	256.8	138.7	27.2	3356.9	150 (1946)	61 (1944)	286.0	10th June 1941
		b	12.4	10.9	6.6	1.7	118.7				
Tirurangadi ..	50	a	208.5	253.2	159.0	37.3	2914.2	137 (1907)	74 (1935)	617.2	19th May 1882
		b	12.6	11.8	7.4	1.8	117.8				
Kozhikode (Dist.) ..		a	239.2	286.6	160.1	33.4	3461.3	140 (1924)	77 (1906)		
		b	13.3	12.6	7.4	1.9	123.5				

*Based on all available data up to 1956

** Years given in brackets

TABLE—II

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm.	*No. of years*	*Range in mm.*	*No. of years*
2601—2800	6	3801—4000	3
2801—3000	3	4001—4200	2
3001—3200	5	4201—4400	2
3201—3400	9	4401 4600	2
3401—3600	9	4601—4800	0
3601—3800	8	4801—5000	1

TABLE—III

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY

(KOZHIKODE)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity	
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	0830	1730*
							..	..
January	31.1	21.7	35.6	27th Jan. 1952	17.2	4th Jan. 1913	77	64
February	31.5	22.8	35.6	3rd Feb. 1952	16.1	25th Feb. 1925	78	67
March	32.3	24.6	35.0	29th Mar. 1954	19.4	1st Mar. 1896	76	69
April	32.8	25.8	35.6	24th Apr. 1952	21.1	11th Apr. 1938	77	72
May	32.3	25.7	37.2	17th May 1920	20.0	24th May 1937	80	76
June	29.3	23.2	33.9	6th June 1948	20.6	30th June 1956	89	85
July	28.1	13.4	32.2	29th July 1931	21.1	1st July 1956	92	90
August	28.4	23.6	32.2	30th Aug. 1953	20.6	11th Aug. 1950	91	87
September	29.2	23.7	33.9	29th Sept. 1952	21.1	30th Sept. 1954	88	83
October	30.2	23.8	34.4	9th Oct. 1897	20.0	31st Oct. 1917	86	78
November	30.8	23.3	34.4	27th Nov. 1929	16.1	27th Nov. 1901	82	72
December	31.1	21.9	35.0	31st Dec. 1957	16.1	12th Dec. 1895	77	65
Annual	30.6	23.7					83	76

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE—IV

Mean Wind Speed in Km-Hr (Kozhikode)

January	*February*	*March*	*April*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*August*	*September*	*October*	*November*	*December*	*Annual*
8.7	10.1	10.9	11.1	11.6	9.0	8.1	7.6	7.4	7.2	6.6	6.8	8.8

TABLE—V

Special Weather Phenomena

Mean No. of days with	*January*	*February*	*March*	*April*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*August*	*September*	*October*	*November*	*December*	*Annual*
Thunder	0.4	0.3	1.6	7.8	7.4	3.3	0.4	0.4	1.4	5.8	5.2	1.1	35.1
Hail	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Dust-Storm	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Squall	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.3	1.1	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	3.3
Fog	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.1

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

PREHISTORY AND ARCHAEOLOGY

Very little is known about the prehistory of the Kozhikode District. Nevertheless, a few prehistoric relics like rock-cut caves, dolmens, burial stone circles, and menhirs, all of megalithic burial order, have come to light in the different parts of the District, thanks to the labours of archaeologists. These may be found distributed in all the Taluks[1].

Rock-cut caves and dolmens have been discovered from various parts of the Kozhikode Taluk[2]. In Kaulanur *Desam* of Annasseri *Amsam*, 8 miles north of Calicut, there are two rock-cut caves. In Kannankara *Desam* there are 3 menhirs and a stone circle. In Chevayur exists a sepulchral rock-cut cave; an erect pillar stands in the middle of the main chamber. The hole at the top of the cave was covered by a block of stone which hid it from sight. Several pots and parts of a sword were found in it. In Iringallur *Amsam*, 3 miles east of Calicut, there is a dolmen. In the *Desam* of Kodal there are 4 such dolmens and in Kayilamadom one. They are all surrounded by stone circles. In the *Desam* of Kalpalli adjoining Kanniparamba, 11 miles east of Calicut, there is a *Topikallu*. In Atuvatu and Mavur there is a menhir each and in Palangad, a rock-cut cave. In Kovur *Amsam*, 5 miles from Calicut, may

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1 The information on prehistoric antiquities given here is based mainly on the *Malabar Manual* (Logan), the *Malabar District Gazetteer* (Innes and Evans), and *Lists of the Antiquarian Remains in the Presidency of Madras* (R. Sewell).

2 The modern Kozhikode Taluk comprises the ancient *Nadus* of Polanad, Beypore, Pulavayi and part of Tamarasseri. The last on the Kurumbranad frontier was subject to the Kottayam Rajas. The Beypore Rajas, an offshoot of the Kshatriya family of Parappanad, ruled along the coastal line from Beypore to Kallayi river and the Pulavayi Nairs held sway in the jungles in the east of the Taluk. Both these *Nadus* were nominally subjected to the suzerainty of the Zamorin who at a very remote period dis-possessed the Porlattiri Raja of Polanad.

be seen a rock-cut cave. In Padinnattumuri *Amsam*, 6½ miles north of Calicut, Logan excavated a number of very interesting rock-cut caves, and exhumed a quantity of pottery[1]. The articles found in these caves have been preserved in the Madras Museum. In the Ketayathur *Desam*, Puthur *Amsam*, is a dolmen and a rock-cut cave and in Chokur *Desam* there is a menhir. In Kommeri *Desam* of Valayanad *Amsam*, 2 miles east—south east of Calicut, there is a rock-cut cave now filled up. Microliths were collected by K.R.H. Todd at Calicut. Iron age antiquities are also found near the place.

Prehistoric sites are come across in the Taluks of Quilandi and Badagara which together once formed the Kurumbranad Taluk[2]. Rock-cut caves are found at Cheruvannur, Karayad and Keezhariyur. In Mullipad *Desam*, Cheruvannur *Amsam*, 9 miles south-east of Badagara, there is a small rock-cut cave. In Kayalat are to be seen a dolmen and two menhirs and in Kilapaliyur a dolmen and 5 menhirs. At Manikottuparamba in Velur *Desam* there is a *Topikallu* 36 feet in circumference on an upright stone about 3 feet high and 4 feet thick. There was a similar circular stone in the same compound which has fallen from its prop. In the neighbourhood of the *Topikallus* there is a stone-cut cave with a central column and raised platforms on sides similar to those found elsewhere in the District. In Pompiri *Desam* of Meppayur *Amsam* is a garden called Mukkattuparamba in which there is a *Topikallu*, 30 feet in circumference, supported by an upright column, about 3 feet high and about 5 feet thick. The circular stone is a little damaged on one side. The place is one mile north east of Quilandi. In Muchukunnu *Desam* of Mutadi *Amsam*, in the valley of Valiamala hill, there are two caves. One is large, being 66 feet long and 36 feet wide. At the western end of the cave is a circular pit 9½ Koles in circumference and 2⅛ Koles deep[3]. The site is locally known as *"Vazhayil Pathalam"*. Iron age antiquities are found near Edacherri *Amsam*, 5 miles from Badagara.

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1 Logan's account of the place is published in Vol. VIII of the *Indian Antiquary* (p. 309), with two plates of engravings.

2 The erstwhile Kurumbranad Taluk was in the days before British occupation divided into the *Nadus* of Kadattanad, Payyanad, Payyoremala and Kurumbranad and included part of Tamarasseri.

3 1 Kole is 2⅓ feet.

The Ernad Taluk has also a number of prehistoric sites[1]. There are large dolmens, menhirs and rock-cut caves in the Manjeri and Nilambur *Amsams*. In Edakkara on the river side, 8 miles to the east of Nilambur on the road to Nilgiris, is an extensive plain of black rich soil. It is supposed to have been once thickly populated, judging from the remains of ruined temples, houses, tanks, wells etc. which are still visible. Rock-cut caves are found at Irumbuli, Puliyakode, Trikulam and Oorakam Melmuri. Ponmala, half way between Kottakkal and Malappuram, also contains rock-cut caves.

The Tirur Taluk is also noted for its prehistoric sites. In Mannur, Vallikunnu and Vengara may be seen rock-cut caves. But the most interesting of the prehistoric sites in Tirur Taluk is Feroke in Nallur *Amsam*. Two miles above the Mamalli ferry on the Ernad bank of the Beypore river lies Chattaparamba, a laterite hill containing numerous tombs of a long forgotten generation, some of them excavated from the laterite rock, others in the shape of huge earthern pots buried in the ground[2]. Interesting beads were collected from some of these tombs. Some of them are of agate with designs on them. The pottery which is found in abundance is of a very varied character and quite different from anything manufactured in recent times.

The South Wynad Taluk[3] is particularly noted for its rock-cut caves and megalithic burial sites, which are undoubtedly of very great antiquity. To the south west of the town of *Ganapathivattam* or Sultan's Battery there lies the Edakkal Mala, one of the principal hills of the Taluk. On its western slope, near the crest, is to be found the Edakkal cave which

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1 Ernad formerly comprised the *Nadus* of South Parappanad, Ramnad, Cheranad and Ernad, the first named belonging to the Parappanad Raja, a feudatory of the Zamorin. Nediyirippu in ancient Ernad is believed to be the birth place of the Zamorin's family. The Parappanad family claims to be Kshatriyas by caste and princesses of the Travancore royal family were often married to the members of this family.

2 *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 442.

3 The Wynad region of Kerala comprises of the North Wynad Taluk of Cannanore District and the South Wynad Taluk of Kozhikode District. It is the home of many of the aborigines of North Malabar such as the Kurumbar, Malayalar, Kuriochiyar and Paniyans.

has excited the curiosity of many an archaeologist and anthropologist[1]. The cave contains interesting carvings on its walls. In addition there are some inscriptions and a few small figures and symbols[2]. The Edakkal carvings clearly represent human and animal figures and objects for human use and symbols. The most interesting features of the sculptures are the frequent human figures with a peculiar head-dress. The figures of animals are indistinct. The symbols that are of frequent occurrence in the engravings are the *Swasthika* in various forms and specimens of the familiar circular "sun-symbols". There is evidence also of some magic squares. Fawcett, who has attempted a detailed study of the rock carvings in the Edakkal cave, suggests the possibility that they might have been the handiwork of Kurumbars of a bygone day. He writes, "The curious reluctance of the Kurumbars to approach the Cave, combined with the simultaneous want of reverence for it both on the part of the Paniyas and the local Hindus, who are very small in numbers and not long resident in the Wynad, might tempt one to hazard the theory as to the carvings being the handiwork of Kurumbars of a bygone day"[3]. Nevertheless he utters a word of caution as follows. "It should, however, be remembered that the Paniya is a particularly fearless individual while the Kurumbar is the reverse. The mere existence of the mysterious carvings in the silent, unfrequented Cave would suffice to inspire the Kurumbar with a kind of awe and make him afraid to have anything to do with it"[4]. It may also be mentioned that megalithic burial sites have been discovered from an extensive area 3 or 4 miles west of the Edakkal

1 It may be mentioned that the so-called Edakkal cave is not a cave in the real sense of the word, but only "a cleft about 96 feet long and 20 to 22 feet wide in the rock. It is a fissure made by a corner of the rock splitting off from the main body from some natural cause. The depth of both the cleft and fissure is 30 feet. What makes it a cave to the ordinary observer is the fact that on the outer portion of the large cleft has fallen an enormous rock weighing several hundred tons so as to form a roof over a large piece of it. Between this roof-rock and the entrance have fallen smaller rocks, which have stuck in the cleft and so continued the roof right on to the entrance". (*The Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XXX, p. 410.)

2 The Inscriptions have been identified as those of the Kadambas and Hoysala Ballalas who were Jains at one time. (*Chera Samrajyam Onpathum Pathum Noottandukalil*, Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, p. 117).

3 *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. III, (1901). p. 421.

4 *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. III, p. 421.

Hill, and also from Chengeri in Ambalavayal *Amsam*. Their proximity to the Edakkal cave invests these sites with a special significance. In addition to Sultan's Battery and its neighbouring areas, Muppainad, Puthadi and Kidanganad in the South Wynad Taluk are famous for their dolmens and menhirs.

Temples, Mosques and Churches

The archaeology of the Kozhikode District may be studied with reference to its innumerable temples, mosques, forts, tombs, monuments and historical sites. The temples and mosques contain sculptures and inscriptions which are of considerable interest to the archaeologist, though no systematic study of the same has so far been undertaken. The most important of the temples and mosques of the District may be mentioned in this connection. Calicut town itself has many temples which are considered to be of hoary antiquity. The most important of these are the Tali temple, Tiruvannur temple, Varakkal temple, Bilattikulam temple, Arikkodikavu, Kokkolikott temple and Bhairagimadhom temple. Some of these temples contain sculptures and paintings of a very high order depicting Hindu religious legends. The Tiruvalangad temple, two miles east of Calicut, contains many ancient sculptures. Its gateway is interesting in so far as it is built in the same style in which the Jains erect their *bastis*. The Chokur and Koduvalli temples contain inscriptions in old Malayalam engraved on granite slabs[1]. Inscriptions are fairly common in the Calicut Taluk. They occur in temples in Payimpalasseri, Parambathu Kavu, Nadukkil and Talakolattur *Amsams*.

In some of the temples of Badagara and Quilandi Taluks may be seen some old inscriptions. On the eastern side of the temple in the hamlet of Kaliyampalli in Edacheri *Amsam* are some inscriptions. Similarly there are some inscriptions on the eastern side of the temple in the hamlet of Vellikulangara in Eramala *Amsam*, 6 miles north of Badagara. An illegible inscription on a granite rock may be seen at the temple of Tiruvangayoor in the Karayat *Amsam*. On a stone just outside an old temple at Muttungal 3 miles north of Badagara is an inscription on a broken slab. Again in the Maralur temple in Viyyur *Amsam* there is an inscription. There is another in

1 The Chokur inscription of Goda Ravi dated 932 A.D. is entered as No. 173 in Vol. II of *South Indian Inscriptions* (p. 72). The importance of the record lies in the fact that in this the *Devadasis* are mentioned for the first time in Kerala.

the Pantalayini temple and one in the deserted temple of Talayil. Moreover, in the Siva temple at Ponmeri is also an ancient inscription on a broken slab. At Panakkad in the Kallod *Amsam*, 18½ miles from Badagara, there is a ruined and deserted temple on the eastern wall of the porch of which is an inscription. At Meppayur, 10 miles east-south east of Badagara is the Elavattara temple of Durga in the grove attached to which are some sculptured images. Three miles south east of Badagara is the Lokanar Kavu, a celebrated temple belonging to the Kadattanat family which is frequently mentioned in the Tacholi Ballads. In the vicinity of the temple are three rock cut caves.

Perhaps the most historic temple of the District is the Tirunavai temple in Tirur Taluk. It is a picturesque building in a clump of trees on the north bank of the Ponnani river on the road from Vettat Puthiangadi to Tritala. Though it presents no striking architectural peculiarities, the Tirunavai temple is of great antiquity. The *Srikovil* of the temple is a massive building roofed with copper and has two big statues of *Dwasthanmar* (door keepers). Tirunavai is frequently mentioned in the *Keralolpathi* and is inseparably bound up with the traditional history of Kerala. It was the venue of the famous Mamamkom, the pan-Kerala festival which till 1755 was celebrated every 12th year. In the neighbourhood of this place are situated three other famous Hindu temples of the District viz., Triprangode temple, Hanumankavu and Chammravattath Ayyappankavu. All these temples are believed to be of great antiquity. The Triprangode temple is dedicated to Siva and is noted for its beautiful mural paintings. The raised stone foundation of a pillar of the building consecrated to Krishna here contains an inscription of Goda Ravi dated 944 A.D.[1] The Hanumankavu is dedicated to Hanuman, the monkey chief. The comparative rareness of dedication of temples to this deity in this region enhances the value of this temple in the estimation of the people. Its *Srikovil* and the *mandapam* are small tiled buildings. The surrounding wall of the former contains paintings of Devas and it has also two statues of *Dwasthanmar* (door-keepers) placed on each side of the entrance. The Chammravattath Ayyappankavu, dedi-

1. Entered as No. 783 in Vol. V of *South Indian Inscriptions*, pp. 337-338. The record is now kept in the Collector's Bungalow, Calicut.

cated to Ayyappan is situated on a small island on the way from Tirur to Ponnani, and the deity here is supposed to possess a specially controlling power over rain. It has no archaeological importance.

At Tanur in Tirur Taluk there is another famous Hindu temple by name Keleswaram or Keraladhiswaram temple dedicated to Vishnu. About two miles to the north of Tanur there is another temple deserving notice. This is called Trikkayikatt temple. The deities worshipped here are Siva, Bhagavati and Ayyappan. The figures of Siva, Brahma, Vishnu and Narasimhamurthi are painted on the wall of the *Srikovil* and two sculptures representing the figures of *Dwarapalas* or doorkeepers are placed in front of the *Srikovil*. In Vettat Puthiangadi there is a temple called Garudankavu, chiefly dedicated to Garuda (Vishnu's bird). Such dedications being rare the temple is regarded with considerable reverence and is also largely resorted to by the Hindu population for protection from any Sarpapida (serpentine displeasure). In the adjoining Trikandiyur *Amsam* is another ancient and famous Siva temple called Trikkandiyur temple associated with Tunchat Ezhuthachan, the father of modern Malayalam literature.

Sultan's Battery in South Wynad is also noted for its ancient temples. The Ganapathi temple which belongs to the Kottayam Raja is one of the most important. It was destroyed by Tipu during the Mysorean invasions and the idol and a few monolithic stones are all that are left. In the Mariyamman temple which is also in a ruined condition there is a stone with an old inscription. The most interesting, however, of the temples of Sultan's Battery is the *Vasti* temple, an old Jain temple. Hidden in a lantana thicket, a few yards south of the 68th mile stone on the Mysore road, its very existence had been forgotten for many years. The temple reminds one of the days when Jainism had its glorious innings in Kerala.[1] There are no Jains now in Sultan's Battery, but it is significant that there are small colonies of them in Manantoddy, Kalpetta and other places. Four miles southwards of Sultan's Battery on the western slopes of Edakkal

1. Mention may be made in this connection of the influence of Jainism on the architecture of the temples and mosques of Malabar. Logan has drawn attention to the fact that the Hindu temples and even Muhammadan mosques of Malabar are also built in the style peculiar to the Jains. *Malabar Manual* Vol. I, Logan, pp. 185-186.

Mala near the crest is the interesting natural cave or fissure to which reference has already been made. On the peak is the shrine of Mudiampilli, the Goddess of the Wynad Chetti caste, and at the foot of the hill are other small temples. It is suggested that the Mundiampilli temple was once a Jain temple[1]. Again at Puthadi in South Wynad is a temple known as Arimula Ayyappan temple on the east wall of the *mandapam* of which is an inscription dated Kollam Era 922 (1746 A.D.) in a mixture of four languages.

In the Kozhikode District may be seen some of the most ancient mosques of Kerala. There are not less than 40 mosques in Calicut town itself. The most important of them are two Jammat mosques, *Shekkinde Palli* and *Pazhaya Palli*. The two Jammat mosques lie on either side of the big tank known as Kuttichira in the middle of the Mappila quarters in Calicut. The one on the south of the tank is 144 to 114 feet and the other on the north 115½ to 64½ feet. It is said to have been built over the tomb of Sheikh Mammu Koya, an Arab of Himisi in Egypt with a great reputation for sanctity. Pazhayapally, which is 56 by 30 feet, is looked upon as an ancient institution as its name indicates. According to *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahiddin* two of the ten mosques founded in Kerala by Maliq Ibn Dinar are in this District. They are at Pantalayini Kollam in Quilandi Taluk and Chaliyam in Tirur Taluk. The mosque at Pantalayini was built in imitation of the one at Mecca. It is a venerable building, and its tomb which Arab vessels passing up and down the coast never failed in former times to salute is covered with sheets of copper. In the Jammat mosque there are three granite slabs with inscriptions. *Mayyat' Kunnu* is the grave yard of Kollam and many of the tombs here are very ancient, and some are inscribed. One of the tombs bears an inscription to the effect that "Ali Ibn Udthorman was obliged to leave this world for ever in the year 166 of Hejira so called after Muhammad the Prophet left Mecca for Medina"[2]. In Quilandi town also may be seen a fine old mosque founded in 1729 by Sayed Abdulla Haji.

In addition to the temples and mosques there are also a number of Christian churches and cemeteries in Calicut and some other parts of the District. The old cemetery at Calicut,

1. *Chera Samrajyam Onpathum Pathum Noottandukalil*, Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, p. 117.

2. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, Innes and Evans, p. 465.

now closed, near the Port Office in crowded with old fashioned tombs, the earliest of which goes back to the 16th century. The Roman Catholic church of the "Mother of God" is one of the most interesting buildings in Calicut. Though from the architectural point of view, it is lacking in merit, the building is picturesque still. The great bell is dated 1750; the smaller and older bell cracked and was recast in 1853. The images of the Virgin Mary and the Crucifixion and a painting of the Madonna and child were brought out by the Portuguese for their chapel at Tanur, and thence were moved to Calicut[1]. They are reputed to be the work of the best artists of the age and are still in a state of good preservation.

Palaces and Forts.

The relics of the past in the shape of ancient palaces and ruined forts may also be seen in the various parts of the Kozhikode District. The site of the Velapuram fort believed to have been founded by the Zamorins, has been lost and the very name forgotten. But an ancient palace of the Zamorins stood in the block of gardens south-east of the Collector's Office at Calicut, now cut in two by the Beypore road, which is still known as Kottapparamba. It had been the convention for the Zamorins to be crowned in this palace. Massive slabs of granite may be seen lying scattered here and there in the gardens even today. The Muthalakulam tank, now the resort of washermen, was the kitchen tank and the Mananchira or Manavikraman *Chira*, the bathing tank of the Zamorin's palace. A new palace built for the Zamorin during the administration of the Estate by the Court of Wards may be seen at Meenchanta in the outskirts of Calicut town. At Tamarasseri in Calicut Taluk is located an ancient palace belonging to the Kottayam Raja's family. At Chaliyam in Tirur Taluk, on a rock islet lying south of the entrance to the Beypore river and connected with the mainland by a groyne, the masonry foundations of a formidable fortress have been excavated. They have been identified with the remains of the fort of "great solidity and strength" which is said to have been erected by the Portuguese in 1531. Feroke in Tirur Taluk abounds in ruins of considerable historical and archaeological interest. Half a mile south west of the place are the ruins of Ferokabad commanding two beautiful reaches of the Beypore river which flows immediately north of the fortress.

1. Malabar District Gazetteer, Innes and Evans, p. 414.

It was built by Tipu Sultan in 1788 as his intended capital in Malabar. At Kottakkal in Ernad Taluk is the fortified palace of the *Kizhakke Kovilakam* or the eastern branch of the Zamorin's family. At Tirurangadi in Tirur Taluk are the remains of an old fort built by the Mysoreans around a palace which belonged to the Zamorin. Near Tirurangadi in Koduvayur *Amsam* is seen an old moat of immense size which was part of an ancient fort. Probably, it belonged to the Zamorin when Cheranad acknowledged his supremacy. Another interesting archaeological relic of the District is the ruined fort near the Travellers' Bungalow at Badagara. At Kottakkal, 3 miles south of Badagara, may be seen traces of the historic fort of the Kunjali Marakkars who fought heroically against the Portuguese. At Kuttipuram in Badagara Taluk at the back of the palace of the Kadattanat Valia Raja are the ruins of another magnificent fort. The walls are in places nearly 50 feet thick and 30 feet high and the fort which was surrounded by a deep moat must have been in ancient times almost impregnable. It may be mentioned that Kuttipuram fort was one of the last places in Malabar to hold out for Tipu.

Coins.

Any survey of the archaeology of the District would be incomplete without a reference to its coinage. *Rasi*, the gold coin supposed to have been minted and put into circulation by Parasurama, the legendary founder of Kerala, is believed to have been the oldest coin current in Kerala. The coin next in point of age was the *Kaliyugarayan panam*, and according to W. Elliot, it was at one time current over the whole of Kerala. Inscriptions of the 9th to the 13th centuries refer to the following gold coins, viz., *Pon, Acchu, Panam, Kasu, Ezhakkasu, Azhakacchu, Anaiacchu, Thiramam* etc.[1]

Unfortunately we have no detailed information regarding the early history of the coinage of the Zamorins. Portuguese writers have recorded that on the arrival of the Portuguese in Malabar the Zamorin of Calicut alone possessed the right of coining money. Barbosa has recorded the tradition that it was the Cheraman Perumal who conferred this unique privilege on the Zamorin. The coins that were minted at Calicut consisted of gold *Fanams*, silver *Tarens* and copper *Kas*[2].

1. See *Trivandrum District Gazetteer*, pp. 93-95 where the subject of coinage has been considered in greater detail.
2. 16 *Kas* made one *Taren* and 16 *Tarens* one *Fanam*

Fanams were of different sizes, values and weights. The Zamorin had his old *Vira Rayan Fanam* (gold—4 to a Rupee). In 1731 it was reduced in weight by 1|50th, and 3½ new *Vira Rayan Fanams* came to be exchanged for a rupee. The Officer in charge of the Zamorin's mint was a goldsmith, who was known as *Manavikrama Asari* or the goldsmith of *Manavikrama*. The mint was destroyed along with the Zamorin's fort and palace in 1766. On the return of the Zamorin from his asylum in Travancore in 1792 minting was resumed, but in 1798 the mint was handed over to the East India Company. But *Fanams* continued to be in circulation in the west coast even as late as 1862, when they were received in the treasuries of Malabar and Calicut.

In addition to these indigenous coins, coins of outside powers have also been current in the District at various times. Very recently (1960) hoards of silver and copper coins issued by the French East India Company and Tipu Sultan were discovered as treasure troves from Kodel *Amsam* in Kozhikode Taluk and Edacherri *Amsam* in Badagara Taluk. Tipu's coins have Urdu characters on one side and the picture of an elephant on the other. 193 copper coins (112 small and 81 big) of the above description were discovered from a bell shaped metal vessel when removing clay from a private land in Kodel *Amsam* in Kozhikode Taluk and the dates noted in the coins are 1215, 1217, 1218 *Hejira* etc. From Edacherri *Amsam* 1674 small silver coins and 44 big silver coins were discovered from a private compound. The coins are of considerable archaeological interest and are reminiscent of the days of Mysore ascendency in Malabar.

ANCIENT PERIOD

The early history of the Kozhikode District is lost in obscurity. Neither inscriptions nor works of classical geographers and Tamil poets which form a valuable source of information for the early history of Kerala help us in reconstructing in full its early history. However, it is certain that during the Sangam age the District formed part of the Empire of the Cheras, a branch of which exercised sway over the northern parts of Kerala with its headquarters at Tondi. The Cheras, beginning their imperial expansion northwards from their original home in Kuttanad (Alleppey District), gradually established their sway over the whole of Kudanad (erstwhile Cochin and South Malabar area) and then over Poozhinad

(North Malabar area). The southern portion of the Kozhikode District formed part of ancient Kudanad while the northern portion formed part of ancient Poozhinad. It may be mentioned here that Poozhinad came under the Cheras only after the defeat of Nannan of Ezhimala at Vakai Perumthurai by Narmudicheral some time in the 5th century A.D.[1]

No details are available regarding the life and culture of the people of the District during the Sangam age apart from such facts as can be gleaned from Sangam works about life in the Chera country in general.[2] The District, however, played a leading part in fostering trade relations between Kerala and the outside world. Scholars have sought to identify Ophir from where Solomon (1000 B.C.) obtained his gold, with Beypore on the mouth of the river of the same name which is famous for its auriferous sands.[3] Also Tondi, one of the most flourishing sea-ports of ancient Kerala, seems to have been situated in this District. According to the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* it was "a large village close to the shore" and was situated at a distance of about 500 stadia from the mouth of Muziris or Cranganore. "It was bounded", says a Tamil poet, "by groves of coconut trees bearing heavy bunches of fruits, a wide expanse of rice fields, verdant hills, bright sandy tracts and a salt river whose glassy waters are covered with flowers of brilliant colours"[4]. The *Nattinai* speaks of the "sea-girt Tondi" and the "Tondi belonging to the Chera" while the *Kurunthokai* refers to the "white paddy harvested in Tondi". The *Patittupattu* and *Akananuru* also contain references to the Chera port of Tondi. On the evidence furnished by such references in ancient works scholars have sought to locate Tondi at several places on the West coast. Kanakasabhai identified it with the village called Pallikkara situated at a distance of 5 miles north of Quilandi. Some other scholars have identified Tondi with Tanur. "Tanur itself" says Yule, "may be Tyndis; it was an ancient city, the seat of a principality and in the beginning of the 16th century had still much shipping and trade". Yule himself, however,

1. Vakai Perumthurai has been identified with Vakayur near Tirunavai. Vide "Nannan of Ezhimala", p. 78 of *Keralam Anchum Arum Noottandukalil* by Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai.
2. The subject has been dealt with in detail in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, See pages 91-99.
3. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 27.
4. *Puram* 17.

suggested "that a more probable site is a few miles further north, Kadalundi, the raised ground by the sea standing on an inlet three or four miles south of Beypore"[1]. Dr. Burnell was also inclined to accept the identification of Tondi with Kadalundi in Tirur Taluk. An attempt has also been made to identify Tondi with Ponnani. Dr. R. C. Majumdar is one of those who subscribe to this identification[2]. Though the last word on the question has not yet been said, the consensus of opinion among scholars is in favour of the identification of Tondi with Kadalundi which is sixty-six and a half miles or five hundred and seventy-eight stadia from the mouth of Muziris[3]. In addition to Tondi the famous town of Pantar was also perhaps situated in the Kozhikode District. The *Patittupattu* refers to Pantar as "the old town" and makes particular mention of the "pearl of Pantar". Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai is inclined to identify Pantar with Pantalayini Kollam in Quilandi Taluk[4].

During the post-Sangam age, which is a dark age in the history of South India, the history of the Kozhikode District is also a blank. But with the dawn of the 9th century A.D. the Cheras had re-established their ascendancy in Kerala with their capital at Mahodayapuram and Kozhikode District along with other parts of Kerala emerged as part of the Second Chera Empire. The inscriptions of Goda Ravi who ruled from 917 to 947 are found at Triprangode (Tirur Taluk) and Chokur (Kozhikode Taluk) in the District. In the Jewish Copper Plates of Bhaskara Ravi Varman, dated 1000 A.D., the ruler of Ernad, the ancester of the later Zamorin, figures as one of the signatories. The relevant passage of the inscription is as follows. "Thus do I the Manamebala Manaviyan the owner of Eralnadu". The ruler of Ernad figures again as a signatory in the Kottayam Copper Plates of Veera Raghava Chakravarti, dated 1225 A.D., along with the ruler of Valluvanad. The relevant passage in the inscription is as follows. "With the knowledge of Eranadu and Valluvanadu (rulers)

1. Quoted by Kanakasabhai in *Tamils Eighteen Hundred Years Ago*, p. 18.
2. *The Classical Accounts of India*, p. 312.
3. Logan was also inclined to accept the identification of Tondi with Kadalundi and reject that with Ponnani, for as he says the mouth of the river Ponnani is a long way short of 500 stadia from the mouth of the Cranganore river. It may also be mentioned that Pallikkara is about 800 stadia from Muziris.
4. *Keralam Anchum Arum Noottandukalil*, Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, p. 108.

have we given it"[1]. During the period of the Kulasekharas (800-1102 A.D.)[2] and for more than a century after the fall of their Empire, Calicut, as an important town, does not seem to have come into existence. During this period Calicut and its surrounding areas formed part of the Kingdom of Polanad ruled over by the Porlattiri. As an important town and port it seems to have come into existence only some time in the 13th century after the conquest of Polanad by the Eradis of Nediyirippu, the ancestors of the Zamorins.

The Founding of Calicut

Legends and traditions preserved in the *Keralolpathi,* written in the 18th century, throw light on the circumstances under which the town of Calicut was founded by the Zamorin and it developed into a great emporium of trade on the West Coast. Though the *Keralolpathi* is by no means considered as a source of history, Logan believed that the tradition preserved in it as to the founding of Calicut and its rapid rise as a trading centre is very probably founded on fact. The Zamorin who had his original headquarters at Nediyirippu in Ernad wanted an outlet to the sea for his land-locked dominion and with this object in view he started on his expedition against Calicut during the period following the fall of the Kulasekharas (Cheraman Perumals)[3]. The Zamorin came

1. It may be noted in this connection that in the Jewish Copper Plates the term "Eralnadu" occurs while in the Veera Raghava Plates issued more than two centuries later "Eralnadu" has become "Eranadu". For details please refer to the *Trichur District Gazetteer,* pp. 134-136.
2. A detailed account of the history of the Kulasekharas has been given in the *Trichur District Gazetteer,* pp. 107-130.
3. *The Keralolpathi* records a tradition regarding the legacy bequeathed to the Zamorins by the Cheraman Perumal. The Zamorins were originally the Eradis of Nediyirippu in Ernad, one of the *Nadus* of the Chera Kingdom. Hearing that the Perumal had partitioned his Kingdom and was about to set sail for Mecca, two Eradi brothers of Nediyirippu, by name Manicchan and Vikkiran, hastened to the Perumal. The latter told them that he had already given away his kingdom to his followers and that there were left for them only the land where the cock crows and the thorny jungle. The Perumal is also said to have given them his sword with the injunction to "die, kill and sieze" and to rule like him as the Emperor of the whole of Malanad. It has also been stated that the Eradi brothers received from the Perumal the *Odinja Val* or the broken sword, the *Odanja Sankhu* or the broken conch, the *Ullanad,* or the land which was still left after partition, and a faithful Panikkar (Ullanad Panikkar) who was to be his servant. The story, it may be noted, has no historical basis.

down to Panniankara and besieged the Porlattiri in his own headquarters. After 48 years of futile fighting the Zamorin resorted to a strategem in a desperate bid to conquer the coveted tract. The ministers and the wife of the Porlattiri were bribed and his troops consisting of 10,000 Nairs were won over. The Zamorin's army entered Porlattiri's fort and compelled the latter to take refuge in the kingdom of the Kolattiris.[1] The Menokki or the Chief Minister of Porlattiri was made the head of the Vadakkumpuram Nairs and given the title of Ernad Menon. The Porlattiri's wife obtained 4 elephants and 40,000 *fanams* and the title of the "Head of the 4 houses of Chalapuram" for herself and "Calicut *Talachennor*" for the oldest male member of her house. The Zamorin shifted his headquarters from Nediyirippu to the newly conquered tract. He built a fort at a place called Velapuram in the newly conquered tract in order to have a firm grip over it. The exact date of the foundation of the town is however not known.[2]

The ruler of Calicut became in course of time one of the most powerful rulers of Kerala. The people of the land called him *Samuri*, the anglicised form of which is the Zamorin.[3] The Zamorin adopted several high sounding titles. *Kunnalakonatiri* was one such title. It means the King of the country between the hills and the sea. *Sailabdhiswaran* which is the Sanskritised form of *Kunnalakonatiri* was also a title used by the Zamorin. In the *Mamamkom Kilipattu* and

1. It is from one of the female members of the family of the Porlattiri chief who thus fled from Polanad on its annexation by the Zamorin that the later Kadathanattu Raja of North Malabar traces his descent.
2. On the doubtful evidence of a later Sanskrit chronogram, DE-VO-NA-RA-YA-NA-VYAL, some writers assign the founding of Calicut to 1042 A.D. (Vide *The Zamorins of Calicut*, K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 83 and *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, pp. 7-8).
3. Some scholars regard '*Samuri*' as a word of Arabic or Persian origin whose meaning has now been completely forgotten. K. V. Krishna Iyer however derives it from *Samutiri* (*Svami* plus *Sri*) He suggests that in Tamil and Malayalam *Svami* becomes Tami, Sami, Chami, Tamu and Chamu and that *Samu* in Samuri is undoubtedly derived from *Svami*. Again *Ri* at the end of the word is said to stand for *Tiri* which is a corruption of *Sri* (Vide. *The Zamorin's of Calicut*, pp. 13-14). It may be noted here that even now the older generation of the Zamorin's servants refer to their master as *Tamuri*.

the *Keralolpathi* the Zamorin is also called *Punturakkon* or *Puntureaen* (King of Puntura)[1].

Rise of Calicut as a Trading Centre

"The rise of Calicut", says K. V. Krishna Iyer, "is at once a cause and a consequence of the Zamorin's ascendancy in Kerala. Its trade filled his coffers and enabled him to extend his authority. And the expansion of his empire in turn increased its commerce. Originally a barren strip covered all over with thorny jungle, the genius of the Manavikramans converted it into a mighty sea-port, where the Arabs and the Chinese met to exchange the products of the west with those of the east"[2]. From the 13th century onwards Calicut attained a position of pre-eminence in the trade of pepper and other spices which made it India's great emporium of international trade. Kerala's exports of pepper, cardamom and textiles which were very much in demand in Europe were shipped from this port. There were several factors which contributed to its commercial prominence in ancient and medieval Kerala. First of all it possessed certain peculiar geographical advantages in so far as it commanded the waterway which gave access to the interior of the Kerala country. The decline in the importance of the ancient port of Cranganore following the fall of the Kulasekhara Empire in 1102 and the geographical change of 1341 which made Cochin a good harbour and a serious rival to Cranganore also enabled Calicut to develop into a major port[3]. Moreover, being the headquarters of the Zamorin, it possessed all the superior advantages that go with the capital of an expanding empire. Further, the Arabs and the Chinese

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1. The term Puntura has been differently interpreted. According to one version Puntura is a corruption of the Tamil term Perumthurai or great harbour, perhaps meaning Calicut itself. It is also suggested that Puntura was a place situated somewhere in the valley of the Kaveri River and that the original family of the Zamorins came from here. (Vide *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, p. 276). It is interesting to note that Puntura a place near Erode, contains the community of Konars or the shepherd tribe, who according to tradition had *Talikettu* and other rites of the Nairs. Probably the Zamorins were originally of this community which migrated to Ernad. Hence Punturakkons see p. 125 of *Ethnographic Notices of South India, Thurston.*
2. *The Zamorins of Calicut*, K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 80.
3. The subject has been dealt with in detail in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, pp. 136-138.

who were carrying on trade with Kerala preferred Calicut to all other ports on the west coast. Above all, the tolerant policy of the Zamorins also contributed a great deal to the steady rise of the place to commercial prominence. "The religious toleration, the good administration which guaranteed security and impartiality of treatment to all, and, above all, the friendly attitude of the Zamorin to all foreign traders, were some of the causes that made Calicut the chief centre of trade in Malabar. But these very virtues of the Zamorin proved his undoing on the advent of the Portuguese"[1].

The *Keralolpathi* records several traditions in regard to the rise of Calicut. A merchant (Chetti) from the East Coast who had been on a trading voyage to Mecca arrived at Calicut with a ship overloaded with gold. The ship was about to sink and the merchant brought it close to the shore at Calicut, took out a box of treasure, laid it before the Zamorin, and narrated his story. The Zamorin directed him to bring the treasure ashore and store it in his palace. The merchant accordingly built a granite cellar in the Zamorin's palace and deposited in it all the treasure that he could conveniently remove ashore from the ship. He then sailed for his own country and after a time returned to Calicut. On opening the cellar in the presence of the Zamorin and counting out the treasure the merchant was surprised to find it correct. He was so pleased that he divided it into two portions and offered one to the Zamorin. But the Zamorin politely turned down the offer. The merchant who was impressed with the conduct of the monarch obtained his permission to trade at Calicut. In this way the bazaar of Calicut was founded. The Chetti's name was Ambaresan, and the Cellar said to have been erected by him bears even to this day the name of Ambaresan *Kett.*

There is yet another tradition preserved in the *Keralolpathi* regarding the rise of Calicut, the purport of which is almost the same as that of the tradition recorded above. The details of this tradition are as follows. In the town of Muscat two sons were born to a Muslim. After they had grown up, the father addressed the elder of the two sons saying, "After my death you two will fight with each other. The other will kill you. Both of you should not be in this same place. You had better go to some land and pass your days. I shall give you enough of gold for that". Thus the father sent away the elder

1. *The Delhi Sultanate,* R. C. Majumdar, p. 418.

son in a ship. He visited various countries and laid presents before their respective sovereigns. The presents consisted of boxes full of gold. In order to test the integrity of each sovereign he used to represent to everyone that the boxes contained only pickles. All the kings he visited, on discovering what the boxes really contained, concealed the fact and appropriated the gold for themselves, but at last the experiment was tried on the Zamorin, and the Zamorin at once called him and said, "You mistook one thing for another. This is not pickles, but gold". In the light of this incident the traveller concluded that the Zamorin was a trustworthy King and that Calicut was the ideal place for him to settle down and carry on his trade. Consequently he stayed on at the place and became the Koya (Muhammaden Priest) of Calicut. It may be noted that both the traditions related above, even if they may not be historically correct, serve to emphasise the fact that property was safe and secure in Calicut under the Zamorin's administration and that in consequence of this, the trade of the place and the trading settlers increased enormously.

The role of the Arab traders

It would be appropriate in this connection to consider the role of the Arabs or Moors, as they were called by the Portuguese, in building up the edifice of the commercial prosperity and political power of Calicut under the Zamorins and in propagating the religion of Islam in Kozhikode District and other parts of Kerala. The Arabs started their trade with the Kerala coast long before Islam as a religion came to have a foothold in this country. When the Zamorin founded Calicut he gave special concessions to the Arabs to settle down in his new town and carry on trade in an atmosphere of freedom and security. The Arabs were given practically the monopoly of the export and import trade of Calicut. They were also given complete freedom to propagate their faith in the land. For these reasons, they patronised the port of Calicut in preference to all other ports on the West Coast and consequently it developed into the greatest emporium of trade in the West Coast of India. It may also be mentioned here that the Arabs contracted marriage alliances with the women of the country. The Mappilas of Malabar are considered to be the offspring of such marriage alliances. The Arabs did not interfere in the internal administration of the Zamorin's dominion, but they were interested in building up his political power as a measure of self-interest.

Consequently they furnished the Zamorin with ships and other means of transport, even horses and soldiers, in his wars against the neighbouring rulers and chieftains. After the Arabs established themselves as a trading power at Calicut, Islam as a religion was formally introduced on the West Coast. According to tradition the pioneers of Islam in Kerala were Maliq Ibn Dinar of Arabia, his two sons, one grandson and his grandson's wife and their family of 15 children[1]. Maliq Ibn Dinar is believed to have founded ten mosques in different parts of Kerala. Of these two are in the Kozhikode District, one at Pantalayini Kollam in Quilandi Taluk and the other at Chaliyam in Tirur Taluk.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

Foreign Notices of Calicut in the 14th and 15th centuries.

Foreign travellers who visited Kerala in the medieval period have testified to the commercial glory of Calicut. Their writings unfold to us the picture of a settled and independent Government which guaranteed maximum freedom and security to foreign merchants who came to the place from all quarters of the globe. The earliest reference to Calicut by a foreign traveller is to be found in the *"Travels"* of Ibn Batuta (A.D. 1342-1347), the African globe—trotter. Ibn Batuta who visited Calicut no less than six times, and stayed there for nearly three months on his first visit has left us an interesting account of its commercial importance. The following brief description of the port of Calicut and its king and people has been taken from an abridged account of this *Travels*[2].

"We next came to Kalikut one of the great ports of the District of Malabar, and in which merchants from all parts are

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1 Mention may be made in this connection of the tradition current in Malabar, and preserved in the *Keralolpathi* that the last Cheraman Perumal became a convert to Islam, abdicated the throne and left on a pilgrimage to Mecca where he breathed his last. Maliq Ibn Dinar and his family are said to have arrived in Kerala a few years after the Perumal's death carrying with them letters addressed by the Perumal to the Kerala chieftains requiring them to give land for mosques and to endow them. Not much reliance need be placed on this tradition because it has now been proved that the last Cheraman Perumal was Rama Varma Kulasekhara (1090-1102) and that he remained a staunch Hindu throughout his life. For details refer to the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, pp. 106-107 and 119 to 120.

2. *The Travels of Ibn Batuta* translated by the Rev. Samuel Lee, p. 172.

found. The king of this place is an infidel, who shaves his chin just as the Haidari Fakeers of Rome do. When we approached this place, the people came out to meet us, and with a large concourse brought us into the port. The greatest part of the Muhammadan merchants of this place are so wealthy, that one of them can purchase the whole freightage of such vessels as put in here, and fit out others like them."

The Chinese Muslim Ma Huan, who visited Calicut in the beginning of the 15th century, also gives us an interesting description of the port and town of Calicut. It may be mentioned in this connection that in addition to the Arabs the Chinese were also carrying on trade with Kerala. They established a small colony of their own in the town and it was called *'China Kotta'* or the Chinese fort. In his *'Travels'*, Ibn Batuta has graphically described the fleet of the Chinese merchants that thronged the port of Calicut during his visit to the place. The Arabs and the Chinese were engaged in a bitter commercial rivalry in which the Zamorin sided with the former. Eventually the Chinese deserted Calicut after undertaking an expedition of revenge in which they inflicted heavy slaughter on the local population. This happened about the beginning of the 15th century. However, when Ma Huan visited Calicut it was a great centre of trade frequented by merchants from all quarters. Ma Huan has stated that the commander of the Chinese fleet which left China in 1408 did on his arrival at Calicut erect a stone with a Chinese inscription on it to commemorate his visit. The following account of Calicut town and port given by Ma Huan may be read with interest[1]. "Much pepper is grown on the hills. Coconuts are extensively cultivated, many farmers owning a thousand trees; those having a plantation of three thousand are looked upon as wealthy proprietors. The king belongs to the Nayar class, and like his brother of Cochin is a sincere follower of Buddha, and as such does not eat beef; his overseer, being a Mahomedan, does not eat pork. This led, it is said in times past, to a compact being made between the king and his overseer to the effect that, if the king would give up eating pork, the overseer would give up eating beef. This compact has been most scrupulously observed by the successors of both parties up to the present day. The king at his devotions prostrates himself

1 Quoted in the *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, pp. 230-232.

before an image of Buddha every morning; which being over, his attendants collect all the cowdung about the place, and smear it over the image of the god. Some of the dung the king orders to be burnt to ashes and put into a small cotton bag which he continually wears upon his person; and when his morning ablutions are over, he mixes some of the powdered dung with water and smears it over his forehead and limbs; by so doing he considers he is showing Buddha the greatest reverence.

"Many of the king's subjects are Mahomedans, and there are twenty or thirty mosques in the kingdom, to which the people resort every seventh day for worship. On this day, during the morning, the people being at the mosques, no business whatever is transacted; and the after part of the day, the services being over, business is resumed".

"When a ship arrives from China, the king's overseer with a Chetti go on board and make an invoice of the goods, and a day is settled for valuing the cargo. On the day appointed, the silk goods, more especially the khinkis (kincobs), are first inspected and valued, which when decided on, all present join hands, whereupon the broker says, 'The price of your goods is now fixed, and cannot in any way be altered'.

"They have no abacus on which to make their calculations, but in its place they use their toes and fingers, and, what is very wonderful, they are never wrong in their reckonings".

"The succession to the throne is settled in a somewhat curious manner. The king is not succeeded by his son, but by his sister's son, because his nephew, being born of his sister's body, is considered nearer to him by blood. If the king has no sister, the succession goes to his brother, if he has no brother, it goes to a man of ability and worth. Such has been the rule for many generations."

"As in Cochin, the money in circulation is the Fanam and the Ta-wih. Their weights are the P'o-ho and the Fan-la-shih, and there is a measure called a Tank-ko-li (Fan-sek-la?). The king's present to the Emperor is usually a gold plaited girdle set with all kinds of precious stones and pearls."

The next foreign notice we have of Calicut is from the pen of Abdur Razzak, the Persian ambassador who visited the Zamorin in 1442. There is no mention of Chinese trade in the accounts of Abdur Razzak, but he makes mention of the fact

that the sea-faring population of Calicut were at the time of his visit nick-named as *'Chin bachagan'* (China boys). Abdur Razzak testifies to the preponderance of Malabar trade with the Arab countries during this period and the dominant role played by the Arab community at Calicut. He gives the following interesting description of his sojourn at Calicut[1]. "Calicut is a perfectly secured harbour, which, like that of Ormuz, brings together merchants from every city and from every country. In it are to be found abundance of precious articles brought hither from maritime countries, and especially from Abyssinia, Zirbad, and Zanzibar. From time to time ships arrive there from the shore of the House of God and other parts of the Hedjas, and abide at will, for a greater or longer space, in this harbour. The town is inhabited by infidels, and situated in a hostile shore. It contains a considerable number of Mussalmans, who are constant residents here, and have built two mosques, in which they meet every Friday to offer up prayer. They have one Kady, a priest, and for the most part they belong to the sect Schafie. Security and justice are so firmly established in the city, that the most wealthy merchants bring thither from maritime countries considerable cargoes, which they unload and unhesitatingly send into the markets and bazaars, without thinking in the meantime of any necessity of checking the account or of keeping watch over the goods. The officers of the Custom-House take upon themselves the charge of looking after the merchandise, over which they keep watch day and night. When a sale is effected, they levy a duty on the goods of one-fortieth part; if they are not sold, they make no charges on them. In other parts, a strange practice is adopted. When a vessel sets sail for a certain point, and suddenly is driven by a decree of Divine Providence into another roadstead, the inhabitants, under the pretext that the wind has driven it there, plunder the ship. But at Calicut every ship, whatever place it may come from, or wherever it may be bound, when it puts into this port, is treated like other vessels, and has no trouble of any kind to put up with."

Abdur Razzak also gives an interesting sketch of the king and the people of Calicut.[2]. "The blacks of this country have the body nearly naked; they bear only bandages round the

1. Quoted in *History of Kerala,* Vol. I., K. P. Padmanabha Menon, pp. 232-233.

2. Quoted in the *History of Kerala,* Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, p. 233.

middle, called,'*lankoutah*', which descend from the naval to above the knee. In one hand they hold an Indian poignard, which has the brilliance of a drop of water, and in the other a buckler of ox-hide, which might be taken for a piece of mist. This costume is common to the king and to the beggar." Razzak however observes that the Mussalmans were dressed in costly garments. The king was called '*Samuri*' and the traveller also noticed the peculiar law of inheritance in force, according to which the king was not succeeded by his son, but by his sister's son. Abdur Razzak also describes his audience with the Zamorin. He was made to sit down on the occasion and his letter was read, but "the *Samuri* paid little respect to my embassy so leaving the court I returned home." Razzak attributes the coldness of the reception accorded to him by the Zamorin to his failure to give him presents. It may be mentioned that whatever presents he caried for the Zamorin had been taken by pirates. The result was that he remained "in that wretched place a comrade of trouble and a companion of sorrow" for some time. At last came a messenger from Vijayanagar with a letter to the Samuri "desiring that the Ambassador of His Majesty the Khakan-i-Said should be instantly sent to him", the Raja of Vijayanagar. The traveller thereupon remarked, "Although the Samuri is not under his authority nevertheless, he is in great alarm and apprehension from him, for it is said that the king of Vijayanagar has 300 sea-ports every one of which is equal to Kalikot and that inland his cities and provinces extend over a journey of three months."

In 1444, two years after Abdur Razzak, Calicut was visited by Nicolo Conti, the Italian, who is most probably the first Christian traveller who has left his notice of Calicut[1]. He describes Calicut as "a maritime city 8 miles in circumference, a notable emporium for all India abounding in pepper, lac, ginger, a larger kind of cinnamon, myrobalans and Zedari."

Athanaseus Nikiten, the Russian traveller (1468 to 1474) also gives us a description of Calicut. He says, "Calecut (Calicut) is a port for the whole Indian sea, which God forbid, any craft to cross, and whoever saw it, will not go over it healthy. The country produces pepper, ginger, colour-plants, muscat, cloves, cinnamon, aromatic roots, adrach and every description of spices, and everything is cheap, and servants and maids are very good." He also refers to Calicut having a "big bazaar."

1. *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, p. 233.

Hieroinimo Di Santa Stefano, a Genovese traveller, visited Calicut towards the close of the 15th century. He describes Calicut as "a great city." Though he writes very little about the city, its government and trade, he gives an account of the peculiar customs and manners of the people.

Another distinguished visitor to Calicut in the 15th century was Pero De Covilham, a Portuguese diplomat, linguist and scholar. Disguised as a Muslim he travelled in an Arab ship and reached Calicut about a decade before Vasco Da Gama landed at the place. His visit to Calicut is described as follows by Bishop Mathews in his *Quest of Prester John*[1]. "He saw more over Calicut, strange gorgeous city of thatched houses and half naked men, of cocoa palms besides the beach, of gold and jewels, of elephants and pepper. Especially pepper. Pepper may not mean much to us, but in that age, it ranked with precious stones. Men risked the perils of the deep and fought and died for pepper."

The Zamorin's conquests in the pre-Portuguese period.

The foregoing notices of Calicut given by foreign travellers who visited the place in the 14th and 15th centuries serve to give us the impression of a rich and prosperous kingdom ruled over by liberal and enlightened sovereigns. The growing material progress of his kingdom infected the Zamorin with political ambition and impelled him to embark on a career of aggressive conquests and expansion. The neighbouring Rajas of Chaliyam, Beypore, Parappanad and Vettat acknowledged him as their suzerain, and so also the Raja of Kurumbranad. the Payyoremala Nairs, and other chieftains in the vicinity of Calicut. Ever anxious to expand the sphere of his influence, the Zamorin next turned his attention to Tirunavai, situated on the banks of the Bharatapuzha. A place of great importance Tirunavai was in the territory of the ruler of Valluvanad, otherwise called Valluvakonatiri[2]. It was in Tirunavai that the famous Mamamkom festival was held every 12 years. According to tradition the Mamamkom was originally presided over by the Cheraman Perumal and at the end of the Perumal rule the Tirunavai sand-bank and the country together with the privilege of conducting the Mamamkom festival with 10,000 Nairs passed on to the Valluvakonatiri. The Zamorin wanted

1. Quoted in *"A History of Kerala"*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 17.
2. *Vellattiri* and *Arangot Udayavar* were also appellations of the ruler of Valluvanad.

to secure for himself from the Valluvakonatiri not only Tirunavai, but also the honour of presiding over the Mamamkom. The *Koormalsaram* or feud between the two Namboothiri villages of Panniyur and Chovaram in the Ponnani Taluk of the present Palghat District which had at this time divided the whole of Kerala into two armed camps gave the Zamorin the pretext for his conquest of Tirunavai. The Zamorin was the patron of the Panniyur faction or Panniyurkoor while the Vellatiri and Perumpadappu Mooppil sided with the Chovaram faction or Chovarakoor. The invasion of Tirumanasserinad[1] by the chiefs of Arangot and Perumpadappu at the time when the *Koormalsaram* was at its height provoked the Zamorin's campaign against Tirunavai. The Raja of Tirumanasseri appealed to the Zamorin for help against the aggression and offered Ponnani as a prize for its protection. The Calicut army was led in person by the Zamorin and the Eralpad[2]. The main army commanded by the Zamorin approached Tirunavai from the north while the Eralpad proceeding by sea occupied Ponnani and Tirumanasseri and attacked the Valluvakonatiri from the west. The war eventually ended in the victory of the Calicut forces and the Zamorin became the master of Tirunavai and assumed the privileged position of the *Rakshapurusha* or Protector of Mamamkom[3].

The conquest of Tirunavai was an achievement of the first magnitude which raised the Zamorin to the pinnacle of his glory. The Zamorin gave handsome rewards to all those who helped him in the grand enterprise. The Raja of Vettat was given the privilege of standing in state under the *Kuriyal* mid-way between the temple of Tirunavai and Vakayur on the

1. Tirumanasserinad comprised 146 *Desams* bounded by Uppathode in the east, Pookaitapuzha in the south, the sea in the west and Bharatapuzha in the north. Its Brahmin ruler was the head of the Panniyurkur and had 3,000 Nairs under him and he was the most powerful of the Brahmin chiefs of ancient Kerala.

2. The heir apparent to the throne of the Zamorin was called Eralpad, so called after Eralnad, the original domain of the Zamorin.

3. Several fanciful stories regarding the Zamorin's conquest of Tirunavai are preserved in the *Keralolpathi*. It is suggested that the idea of the conquest of Tirunavai was first commended to the Zamorin by the Calicut Koya who had been to Tirunavai to witness the Mamamkom festival. The Koya was so much impressed by the power and majesty of the Valluvakonatiri and his princely

day of Pooyam during the Mamamkom festival. Tirumanasseri was included in the Zamorin's party in all ceremonies connected with the Mamamkom. He also got the right to collect a nominal fee from every merchant who attended the festival. To the Raja of Cranganore or the *Padinjattedath Swarupam* went the right of supervising the feeding of the Brahmins during the Mamamkom. The Calicut Koya was granted all the privileges and dignities of a Nair chief. He was also given full jurisdiction over the Muhammadans residing in the Bazaar, the right to receive a small present from the Ezhavas, Kammalas and the Mukkuvas whenever the Zamorin conferred any honours

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allies that on his return to Calicut he placed before the Zamorin his project for the conquest of Tirunavai. Though the Zamorin first protested that the project was beyond his means, he eventually approved of it. The Koya proceeded against Tirunavai at the head of a large army and occupied the place and annexed all the rights and dignities connected with the Tirunavai Temple and the Mamamkom festival. On his triumphant return to Calicut the Zamorin rewarded him with boundless wealth and conferred on him the title of Calicut Koya together with many other honours. According to another version the Koya secured for the Zamorin Tirunavai and the privilege of presiding over the Mamamkom festival from the Valluvakonatiri by a strategem. He sought an audience with the Valluvakonatiri and won him over by wholesome flattery. Eventually he prevailed upon him to proclaim in public that the right of conducting the Mamamkom festival would devolve upon any other ruler who would succeed in killing him when he stood in state on the Vakayur platform during the festival. When the next festival came, so goes the story, the followers of the Zamorin managed to overpower the bodyguard of the Valluvakonatiri and kill him. The right of conducting the Mamamkom thus passed to the Zamorin. Ever since this tragic episode the Valluvakonatiri used to send in vain the *Chaver* soldiers to kill his adversary at every Mamamkom and regain the lost right. There is an interesting reference to this custom in the Jesuit Letters of the year 1597. "On the last occasion there were 30, who leaping among the crowd, slaughtered a great number, till they themselves were cut to pieces by the bodyguard" (*Vide The Jesuits in Malabar*, Vol. I, Ferroli, p. 228). Mention may also be made in this connection of another tradition prevalent to the effect that the Zamorin had promised to marry the Koya's daughter in the event of the success of the Tirunavai enterprise and that he could not actually act upto his word as it would have involved the loss of his caste.

on them, and the right to collect brokerage at the rate of 10 *fanams* from every foreign ship that called at the Calicut port. The Koya was also in charge of the fire works at the Mamamkom. Above all, on the last day of the festival it was to be his privilege to stand on the side of the Zamorin[1].

Ever since the conquest of Tirunavai there was bitter and protracted hostility between the Zamorin and the Valluvakonatiri. During these hostilities the Zamorin extended his authority as far as Nilambur on the one side and Venkatakotta (Kottakkal) on the other. A notable conquest of the Zamorin during this period was that of Nedunganad[2] lying between the Arangot and Tarur *Swarupams*. Its unpopular ruler was dethroned and the Eralpad was appointed its Governor with headquarters at Karimpuzha. The Rajas of Talapilli also submitted themselves to the Zamorin. The Punnathur chief, the most powerful of the Talapilli Rajas, hereafter became a staunch ally of the Zamorin and got the privilege of taking part in the *Ariyittuvazhcha*[3] and dining with the Zamorin on that day. The conquests of the Zamorin in the Ponnani Taluk, which formed part of Valluvanad, forced the Perumpadappu Mooppil to abandon his original headquarters at Chitrakutam in Vanneri and move into Tiruvanchikulam. As the Zamorin was being helped in his campaigns by the Muslims, he forfeited the sympathy of the vast bulk of the Namboothiris who turned to the Perumpadappu Moopil for patronage as the head of the Chovaram faction. Only a small minority of Namboothiris

1 *The Zamorins of Calicut*, K. V. Krishna Iyer, pp. 102-104.

2 Nedunganad is famous in local tradition as the home of Melattur Agnihotri, Narayanan the Mad, Karayku Mata, and Pakkanar, the Paraya. The legend associated with these persons may also be mentioned here. "The Brahmin, Vararuchi, happened to marry by an accident a woman born of Paraya parents and had twelve children by her. These twelve were known as *'Parachi petta pantir kulam* പറച്ചിപെററ പന്തിരുകുലം or the twelve children born of the Paraya woman. As the children were left to their fate wherever they were born, they came to be discovered and brought up by people of different castes. The twelve children were Melattur Agnihotri, a Brahmin; a washerman whose name is not known; Uliyanur Tacchan, a carpenter; Vallon a Pulaya; the Nayar of Vatutala; Karayku mata, a Kshatriya lady; Uppukottan, a Muhammadan; Pananar, an umbrella-maker; Narayanan the Mad, an Elayutu; Akavur Chattan, a Vaisya; Pakkanar, a Paraya; and Vayyilla kunnilappan, the deity who had no mouth." *The Zamorins of Calicut*, K. V. Krishna Iyer, pp. 122-123.

3 The ceremony connected with the inauguration of the Zamorin's reign.

belonging to the Panniyurkoor continued to support the Zamorin. By the end of the 14th century the Zamorin acquired a sort of hegemony over a large part of Kerala. The *Kokasandesam* composed about 1400 A.D. makes it clear that the Zamorin had by this time extended his authority up to Trikana Matilakam near Tiruvanchikulam because the Eralpad is stated to have been in residence here at this time[1]. Perhaps the aggression of the Zamorin was one of the factors which prompted the Perumpadappu Mooppil to move his headquarters from Tiruvanchikulam to Cochin, some time about 1405 A.D. Other factors also contributed to strengthen the hands of the Zamorin in his rivalry against the Cochin ruler. The chief of Cranganore was already his ally and this too helped the Zamorin. Further, the Zamorin got the support of the ruler of Edapilli or Elangallur *Swarupam* as the latter had some grievance against the Cochin ruler. In the 15th century the internal dissensions in the Perumpadappu *Swarupam* gave an opportunity to the Zamorin to interfere in its affairs. The ostensible object of the Zamorin was to help the *Mootha Tavazhi* branch of Cochin against the ruling *Elaya Tavazhi*. The Raja of Cochin was defeated and his palace at Trichur was occupied by the Zamorin. The Zamorin then installed his partisan on the throne of Cochin. The new ruler accepted Zamorin's suzerainty and undertook to pay him annual tribute. He also undertook to supply regular contingents to the Zamorin's army, and to sell all his pepper and other merchandise only through the port of Calicut.

In the meantime the relations between the Zamorin and the Kolattiri Raja of Chirakkal were strained. Perhaps the reason for this was the elopement of a princess of the Zamorin's family along with a Kolattiri prince. The Zamorin, who wanted to avenge the insult, occupied Pantalayini Kollam. The Kolattiri offered submission and ceded to the Zamorin Pantalayini Kollam and *Melkoima* rights over the temple of Taliparamba. Thus, on the eve of the arrival of the Portuguese in Kerala, the Zamorin was at the zenith of his power. All princes and chieftains of Kerala north of Cochin acknowledged him as their suzerain.

Contributions of the early Zamorins to literature and learning.

We may briefly describe the contributions made by the early Zamorins to the cultural heritage of Kerala, particularly

1 *Kokasandesam*, verse 49.

in the fields of literature and learning. While Calicut under the Zamorins was rising into commercial prominence and establishing its political supremacy over large parts of Kerala, the town was also developing itself into an important centre of learning and culture. The Zamorin's family produced several illustrious scholars and men of letters who contributed substantially to learning and literature. Mention may be made in this connection of the annual assembly of scholars held at the Tali temple in Calicut which attracted scholars and poets of distinction from far and near[1]. The assembly was held for seven days under the patronage of the Zamorin for conferring the title of *Bhatta* on scholars who distinguished themselves most in its deliberations. The title was conferred only on persons of proved merit. The celebrated Melpathoor Narayana Bhattatiri, the author of *Narayaneeyam,* was himself denied the honour six times and was admitted to it only on the seventh occasion. All the *Sabha Mutts* of Kerala sent their representatives to the assembly, which held its sittings in the roofed hall called *Vatilmadam.* Four lighted lamps represented *Bhatta Meemamsa, Prabhakara Meemamsa, Vyakarna* and *Vedanta* respectively. Discussions on these subjects were held in front of the respective lamps. On the last day of the ceremony Mangat Achan, the chief minister of the Zamorin, read out the names of the winners from the list supplied to him by the judges and they received from the Zamorin not only the title of *Bhatta* but also a purse. The recipients of the honours then blessed the Zamorin by placing their hands upon his head and took their seats along with the members of the *Sabha.*

The earliest and the most outstanding of the Zamorins who rendered great services to literature and learning was Manavikrama the Great (1466-1471)[2]. His reign witnessed a remarkable efflorescence of literature and philosophy similar to that which was witnessed at Mahodayapuram under the Kulasekharas[3]. Manavikrama was himself a great scholar and has been credited with having written the commentary

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1 The assembly was popularly known as *Revathi Pattathanam* as it was held for seven days beginning with the day of Revathi asterism of the month of Tulam.

2 *The Zamorins of Calicut,* K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 336.

3 The literary contributions of the age of Manavikrama have been described in detail in Chapter IV of "*The Contribution of Kerala to Sanskrit Literature*" by Dr. K. Kunjunni Raja, pp. 63-98.

"*Vikrameeya*" on Murari's *Anargharaghava*. He is also one of the greatest patrons of literature Kerala has ever produced[1]. His court was adorned by 18 celebrated poets known as *Patinettarakavikal*. The names of all these poets are however unknown. The most important of them were the two Payyur Bhattatiris (Maharshi and his son Parameswara), Uddanda Sastrikal, Damodara Bhatta of Kakkasseri, Narayanan Namboothiri of Chennas, and Punam Namboothiri[2].

The Payyur Bhattatiris, Maharshi and his son Parameswara, were acknowledged authorities on *Meemamsa*, and the head of the Payyur family was the chief judge at the *Pattathanam*[3]. Uddanda Sastrikal compares Maharshi, the father Bhattatiri, to Kalidasa in Poetry, *Kalpavriksha* in the matter of gifts and Siva in the matter of omniscience. He calls his son, Parameswara, *Meemamsa Chakravarti* or Emperor of *Meemamsa*.

Uddanda Sastrikal was a native of Latapuram on the banks of the Palar river in the present Chingleput District. He came to Calicut to take part in the annual *Pattathanams*, and lived for sometime in the court of Manavikrama. Uddanda has immortalised himself by his two famous Sanskrit works *Kokilasandesa* and *Mallikamarutha*. The *Kokilasandesa* is a lyrical poem written in the model of the *Meghaduta* of Kalidasa and *Sukasandesa* of Lakshmidasa while *Mallikamarutha* is a drama modelled on Bhavabhuti's *Malathimadhava*. The theme of the former is a message sent by a lover through a *Kokila* (Cuckoo) from Kanchipuram in Madras State to his sweet heart in Chennamangalam in the present Ernakulam District. The *Mallikamarutha* describes the story of the love between Mallika, the daughter of Viswavasu, the minister of king Vidyadhara and Marutha, the son of Brahma Datta, the minister of the king of Kuntala. The work was composed on

1 Kakkasseri Bhattatiri called Manavikrama the *Saraswatanidhi* the treasure of learning.

2 *Patinettara Kavikal* is sometimes interpreted to mean eighteen and a half poets. It is assumed that there were 18 Sanskrit poets and 1 Malayalam poet (Viz. Punam Namboothiri) in the court of Manavikraman. Being a Malayalam Poet Punam Namboothiri is said to have been counted only as a half poet. This explanation does not seem to be convincing. Perhaps *Patinettarakavikal* means 18 royal poets. (*Charitrathinte Paschathalathil*, Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, p. 140).

3 See *Trichur District Gazetteer*, p. 148 for details on the Payyur Bhattatiris.

the command of Manavikrama. Uddanda is also believed to have written a work on *Alankara,* but it has not yet been discovered.

Kakkasseri Bhattatiri was the chief rival of Uddanda at the court of Manavikrama.[1] He defeated Uddanda in his own field of dialectics in the *Pattathanam* at the Tali Temple and restored the honour of the Namboothiris. The most important of his works is the *Vasumati Manavikrama,* a drama in seven Acts which describes the story of Manavikrama's marriage with Vasumati, the daughter of his minister Mangat Achan. This work is in a way his reply to Uddanda's *Mallikamarutha.* In the construction of its plot Kakkasseri is indebted to Kalidasa and Harsha while in the general style and diction of the verses he follows Rajasekhara.

Chennas Narayanan Namboothiri, the other celebrated poet at Manavikrama's court, is remembered for his famous work *'Tantrasamuchaya',* which is even today an authority on *Tantric* rituals, temple architecture and iconography in Kerala.[2]

Punam Namboothiri, who too adorned the court of Manavikrama and received also the patronage of his successor Manaveda (1474-1482 A.D.), composed his works in Malayalam. Uddanda Sastri, who had great contempt for Malayalam poets, held Punam in very high admiration. It is stated that Uddanda was once so much swayed by one of his Malayalam verses in praise of Manavikrama that he gave away his upper garment to Punam in token of his admiration. Among the Namboothiri poets in Malayalam Punam occupies a very high place.

The foregoing survey of the contributions of Calicut to literature and learning during the age of Manavikrama shows that on the eve of the arrival of the Portuguese Calicut was not only at the height of its commercial prosperity and political power but also of its literary and cultural greatness.

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1. "According to tradition, the Nambootiris, piqued by the uniform success of the Sastrikal at the Pattattanam contests and despairing of defeating him, prayed to God for the birth of a poet amongst them who would vanquish the east coast stranger. Hearing that a Nambootiri lady was in the family way, they began to give her, as enjoined in the Sastras, butter consecrated by Mantras. Thus was born Kakkasseri." (*The Zamorins of Calicut,* K. V. Krishna Iyer, pp. 300-301).

2 Chennas was born in Kali year 4529 corresponding to 1428 A.D.

Political conditions of Kerala on the eve of the arrival of the Portuguese.

Political canditions in Kerala on the eve of the arrival of the Portuguese presented the gloomy picture of a feudal polity with its inevitable evils. There was no strong central power in Kerala at this time. But there were a few major and minor rulers who exercised varying degrees of political power. The major rulers were the Kolattiri Raja of Cannanore, the Zamorin of Calicut and the King of Venad (Quilon). They exercised sovereign political rights, and could wear the crown, coin money and hold ceremonial umbrellas. However, it must be stated that the Kolattiri Raja had, at the time of the coming of the Portuguese, already come within the sphere of influence of the Zamorin. The minor rulers were the Rajas of Vettat (Tanur), Cranganore, Cochin, Mangat, Edapilli, Purakkad (Chempakassery), Kayamkulam, Vadakkumkur, Thekkumkur, Elayadathuswarupam etc. None of these minor rulers, however, possessed sovereign authority. The major rulers like the Zamorin exercised a sort of hegemony over them. The ruler of Cochin, though only a minor Raja, was accorded a superior social status as he was a Kshatriya by birth and was also considered to be the descendant of the Cheraman Perumal in the maternal line.[1] The fact that he exercised jurisdiction over a large number of temples in various parts of Kerala irrespective of all considerations of political boundaries also invested him with a higher status in the eyes of the people.[2] In spite of the existence of these major

1. The Zamorin was a Nair and therefore belonged to a lower caste. This difference in caste between the Zamorin and the Cochin Raja was an important and underlying cause of the struggle between Calicut and Cochin.

2. Reference may be made in this connection to the "curious religious polity" of medieval Kerala to which attention has been drawn by K. M. Panikkar in his *A History of Kerala* (Vide page 26). "Politically divided into small principalities" says Panikkar, "Kerala was a single entity from the point of view of social and religious organization. The very fact that there were no kingdoms and states, but only Rajas and Chiefs, who had often rights and properties in each other's territory, helped the growth of an extra-political social unity." Just as the ruler of Cochin had rights over temples situated in the territories of other rulers, so too his counterparts like the Zamorin and the Raja of Kayamkulam had special rights over temples situated outside their political domains. The Namboothiri Brahmins with their extra territorial loyalties

and minor rulers de facto power in most parts of the country was in the hands of independent Nair nobles or *Madampimar* such as the Kaimals, Karthas etc. These nobles acknowledged the nominal sovereignty of the ruler who exercised hegemony over their domains. Their main function was to provide their sovereigns with soldiers in times of war and for this purpose they maintained private armies of their own. In spite of the political and military predominance of the Kshatriyas and the Nairs, it has to be borne in mind that the Namboothiris held a more dominant position in the public life of the country. The reason for this was that almost all Kshatriya and Nair chieftains were the sons of Namboothiris. In addition to this, the Namboothiris also enjoyed unchallenged religious supremacy. Thus, at the time of the arrival of the Portuguese, Kerala had a feudal polity comparable to that of medieval Europe. "The weakness of the system", says K. M. Panikkar, "was that though there were many kings and Rajas, there was no such thing as royal authority, no central power capable of uniting the Nairs into a single confederacy. Undoubtedly the course of Kerala History during the two centuries previous to the arrival of the Portuguese was in the direction of an increase in the Zamorin's power and the establishment of a Kerala confederation under his authority. But this very process gave rise to jealousies and feuds."[1]

Vasco Da Gama's landing at Calicut

The landing of Vasco Da Gama at Calicut on 27th May 1498 was an event which was destined to write the name of Kerala in the annals of world history. On 8th July 1497 King Emmanual of Portugal fitted out an expedition consisting of 3 vessels of 170 men and despatched it under the command of Vasco Da Gama to discover a route to India and capture for Portugal the trade with the East.[2] After a series of vicissitudes the Squadron rounded the Cape of Good Hope in November and eventually arrived at Kappat or Capucad a few miles

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and scant respect for political boundaries also exercised authority over several temples in various parts of the country and this factor also helped to make "the curious religious polity" referred to above a reality.

1. *A History of Kerala,* K. M. Panikkar, p. 27.

2 For a proper understanding of the events of the Portuguese period of Kerala History it is necessary to bear in mind the peculiar circumstances that led to the Portuguese conquests in the East.

north of Calicut on the 27th May, 1498.[2] A large concourse of people assembled on the shore to witness the vessels, which were different from those usually seen on the coast. Immediately after their arrival the Portuguese started negotiations with the Zamorin's officers. The Zamorin was at this time at Ponnani. From there he sent instructions to his officers to receive the Portuguese with due honours. The Zamorin's pilots guided the ships to the harbour at Pantalayini Kollam where they were safe from the vagaries of the weather. But Arab merchants whose influence was paramount at Calicut and who had in their hands the monopoly of the trade between the Malabar coast and the West threw many hurdles in the way of the Portuguese. Vasco Da Gama persevered and at last obtained an audience with the Zamorin. Escorted by a number of his officers Da Gama landed on shore and proceeded towards the Zamorin's residence in the interior. On the way he and his men mistook a Hindu temple where the priest was conducting a religious ceremony for a Christian Church and walked in and worshipped there.

The Zamorin received Vasco Da Gama and his party at a special Durbar. We have an interesting description of the interview between Vasco Da Gama and the Zamorin.

On 8th January, 1454 Pope Nicholas V issued a Bull conferring on the Portuguese the right to all discoveries up to India. On 13th March, 1456 Pope Calixtus III, promulgated a second Bull confirming the grant of Nicholas V. Pope Alexander VI issued another Bull on 4th May, 1493 fixing a line of demarcation between the discoveries of the two Iberian States, Spain and Portugal. The line was a meridian drawn from the North to the South Pole, running 100 leagues from the west of the Azores and Cape de Verde Islands, all the lands discovered or to be discovered to the west of it belonging to Spain, and those to the East of it to Portugal. These Bulls gave to the Portuguese what in the 15th century appeared to be an unquestionable moral and legal title to the territories discovered by them in the East. The Treaty of Tordesilhas signed on 9th June, 1494 finally fixed a line of 370 leagues west of Cape Verde Islands as the demarcation of the respective zones of monopoly of Portugal and Spain. The subcontinent of India fell clearly within the sphere of Portugal. Perhaps the Portuguese also felt that they were on a spiritual mission to the East to conquer heathen lands and serve the cause of Christianity. It is significant that *Sao Gabriel*, the ship of Vasco Da Gama, which landed in Calicut in 1498 flew at its mast a flag on which was painted a large Cross of Christ.

2. Historians are not however agreed as to either the month or the date on which Da Gama left Portugal or he landed at Calicut.

Da Gama appeared in the Zamorin's court "dressed himself in a long cloak coming down to his feet, of tawny coloured satin, lined with smooth brocade, and underneath a short tunic of blue satin, and white buskins, and on his head a cap with lappets of blue velvet, with a white feather fastened under a splendid medal; and a valuable enamel collar on his shoulders, and rich sash with a handsome dagger. He had a page dressed in red satin, and in front of him went the men in file one before another. First after these went the basin carried wrapped in a napkin by a man who held it against his breast, and in front another with the ewer; then a tray with knives and caps, and then the open mirror which had doors, and was all splendidly gilt; next the pieces of silk, and in front of all the chair carried upon the head of the broker; and there was in front a piece of scarlet cloth opened so as to show it. Before these went the trumpets sounding, and the factor went with a cane in his hand, and his cap off, as he conducted all the bearers of the present. The king was in a balcony and saw everything in the order in which it came, with great pleasure at seeing such rich things. The factor entered in front and presented each thing to the king, and he placed a cushion upon the chair, and another at its foot and said, that the ambassador asked him as a favour to sit on the chair for him to give him his embassage seated on that chair, and the king, with the great satisfaction which he experienced, sat upon it".[1]

The following is a description of the Zamorin as he appeared on the occasion. "He was a very dark man, half naked and clothed with white cloths from the middle to the knees; one of these cloths ended in a long point on which were threaded several gold rings with large rubies, which made a great show. He had on his left arm a bracelet above the elbow, which seemed like three rings together, the middle one larger than the others, all studded with rich jewels, particularly the middle one which bore large stones which could not fail to be of very great value. From this middle ring hung a pendent stone which glittered. It was a diamond of the thickness of a thumb; it seemed a priceless thing. Round his neck was a string of pearls about the size of hazel nuts; the string took two turns and reached to his middle. Above it he

1. *Malabar in the Eyes of Travellers*, Sooranad P. N. Kunjan Pillai, pp. 16-17.

wore a thin round gold chain which bore a jewel of the form of a heart, surrounded with larger pearls, and all full of rubies. In the middle was a green stone of the size of a large bean, which from its showiness was of great price, which was called an emerald". .... "The king had long dark hair, all gathered up and tied on the top of his head with a knot made in it; and round the knot he had a string of pearls like those round his neck; and at the end of the string a pendent pearl pear-shaped and larger than the rest, which seemed a thing of great value. His ears were pierced with large holes, with many gold ear-rings of round beads. Close to the king stood a boy, his page, with a silk cloth round him. He held a red shield with a border of gold and jewels, and a boss in the centre of a span's breadth of the same material; and the rings inside for the arm were of gold; also a short drawn sword of an ell's length, round at the point, with a hilt of gold and jewellery with pendent pearls".[1]

After exchange of presents and compliments Vasco Da Gama presented to the Zamorin the letter of King Emmanual containing a request that the Portuguese be granted facilities for trade at Calicut. The Zamorin gave only an evasive reply to the request and the immediate results of the interview were not satisfactory. But eventually Vasco Da Gama succeeded in obtaining permission from the Zamorin to build a factory at Calicut. This alarmed the Muslim traders of Calicut, and they sought by every means in their power to bring about an estrangement between the Zamorin and the Portuguese. They warned the King that the Portuguese had not undertaken this long journey to India from their distant home "for mere purposes of trade, of which, being a wealthy nation, they had no need, but only to spy out the country with the view of returning and conquering it by force of arms and plundering it".[2] When the monsoon was over Vasco Da Gama made preparations for his return voyage to Portugal. He departed on the 30th August with rich cargoes and a letter from the Zamorin to the King of Portugal proposing an interchange of commerce. However, before Vasco Da Gama set sail for his country he had some serious misunderstanding with the Zamorin and he carried off five natives of Calicut as captives. On his return voyage he also entered into an

1 *Malabar in the Eyes of Travellers*, Sooranad P. N. Kunjan Pillai, pp. 18-20.

2 *Portuguese in India*, Vol. I, F. C. Danvers, p. 50.

agreement with the Kolattiri Raja of Cannanore, who was a bitter enemy of the Zamorin. Da Gama reached Lisbon on the 18th September 1499 with only two vessels and 55 men, the rest having perished during the expedition.

The voyage of Vasco Da Gama is one of the epoch making events in world history.[1] Its importance lay in the momentous results that flowed from it. The discovery of the trade route to India broke down the wall of separation between India and the West. It shattered the monopoly of trade which the Venetians and the Egyptians had so long enjoyed. The success of Vasco Da Gama's enterprise eventually created in the minds of Kerala chieftains an awareness of the importance of sea power in building up their political strength. But the only people who properly realised the political significance of the event were the Muslim traders, particularly the Arabs. The arrival of the Portuguese on the Kerala scene posed a serious threat to their commercial supremacy on the West coast and they had to fight hard to preserve it.

Cabral's Expedition

The return of Vasco Da Gama with cargo worth 60 times the cost of the expedition excited the ambition of the Portuguese king and the people. Consequently a second expedition

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1. It may be mentioned in this connection that K. M. Panikkar has expressed the view that Vasco Da Gama's discovery of the trade route to India is of no importance "as a feat of exploration or even of nautical adventure" (*A History of Kerala*, p. 32). In his *Asia and Western Dominance* (pp. 32-33) he elaborates this point as follows: "Little need be said here of Da Gama's voyage. He had the assistance of navigators and mariners trained in the great school of Prince Henry. They knew the seas all the way down to the Cape. So far as the east coast of Africa was concerned, the voyage up to Mozambique presented no great difficulties. In the actual crossing of the Indian Ocean the captain-general was guided by an Indian pilot whom the King of Milindi had placed at his disposal. It should be remembered that the Indian Ocean, including the entire coast of Africa, had been explored centuries ago by Indian navigators. Indian ships frequented the East African ports and certainly knew Madagascar. .... The Indian Ocean was therefore a chartered sea whose routes were known, and as a navigation achievement Vasco Da Gama's arrival at Calicut could not bear comparison either with those of the captains who first passed the desert coasts and crossed the Equator or of Diaz who reached the Cape. Yet it was the realization of the great dream, the crowning act of seventy years of achievement."

with 13 ships under the command of Petro Alvarez Cabral was organised. The expedition set sail from Portugal on 9th March 1500, and after discovering Brazil on the way, reached Calicut on the 13th September. Cabral was well received by the Zamorin and he obtained permission to establish a Portuguese factory for the purchase of spices. But the Arabs who found in the Portuguese a menace to their trade refused to co-operate with them or to recognise their right to trade in spices. They did everything they could to hamper Portuguese trade. In vain did Cabral protest to the Zamorin several times against the Arab tactics. At last an open rupture between the Portuguese and the Arabs became inevitable. Cabral seized an Arab vessel which was loading cargo in the harbour. The Arabs on shore became greatly agitated and sacked the Portuguese factory at Calicut slaying the factor Ayres Correa and 53 of his men. Cabral retaliated most violently by destroying 10 Arab ships and bombarding the town for two days. About 500 to 600 men lost their lives. By these acts of deliberate brutality Cabral struck terror into the hearts of the people of Calicut. The Portuguese cruelty made the Zamorin their inveterate enemy and hereafter his policy towards the Portuguese was one of firm opposition. Having found that further stay at Calicut was futile Cabral and his men set sail for Cochin. The ruler of Cochin granted to the Portuguese all facilities for trade. In entering into an alliance with the Portuguese the Cochin Raja was actuated by political ambition. Cochin was at that time a petty principality subordinate to the Zamorin. Its ruler saw in the Portuguese alliance a means by which he could throw off the Zamorin's yoke and attain sovereign status. The Portuguese also got in the Cochin Raja a much needed ally and henceforward they were not in need of the Zamorin's favour. Cochin with its beautiful harbour and inland water communications was in a way superior to Calicut as a port and there. moreover, the Portuguese had not to contend with the vested trade interests of the Arabs. Their common hatred of the Zamorin was a tie between them and the Raja, and afforded the best guarantee of mutual support in times of need. Cabral's mission in Cochin was a great success. He returned to Lisbon with a rich freight though he lost 7 of his 13 vessels in the distant and tempestuous sea.

Joao de Nova's Expedition

Before Cabral's return, the King of Portugal sent in April, 1501 another squadron of 4 vessels under Joao De Nova. De Nova first touched Cannanore and then proceeded straight towards Cochin. Although he deliberately avoided touching Calicut, he encountered the Zamorin's fleet on the way and sunk five large vessels and 9 small ones. He received a warm welcome on his arrival at Cochin.

Da Gama's Second Expedition

The disquieting news of the hostility of the Zamorin and the Arab traders at Calicut brought by Cabral made the Portuguese king indignant. In February 1502 he despatched a larger and better equipped expedition of 20 ships under Vasco Da Gama. On arriving at Calicut Da Gama received overtures of co-operation from the Zamorin. The latter also offered to pay compensation for the damage caused to Cabral's factory, but Da Gama refused to listen to any proposals for peace and demanded the peremptory expulsion of the Arabs from the country. On the Zamorin's refusal to comply with the demand he hanged 34 Arabs he had captured and sent their heads, hands and feet ashore in an open boat, an act of deliberate brutality which has perhaps few parallels in history. Da Gama then repeatedly bombarded Calicut and almost annihilated the Arab merchant fleet. Subsequently he proceeded to Cochin where the timid Raja made an abject surrender to all the Portuguese demands. The Portuguese got the right of monopoly of trade in pepper, cardamom and other spices and also the right to build factories in Cochin. During Vasco Da Gama's absence in Cochin the Zamorin strengthened his navy for the inevitable encounter with the Portuguese. This newly orgnised navy under Koja Kassim attacked Vasco Da Gama off Cochin. A battle was fought between Vasco Da Gama's fleet and that of the Zamorin before Da Gama sailed away from Cochin, but its results were indecisive. On his way back home, Da Gama, landed at Cannanore where he regulated the affairs of the Portuguese factory and sailed for Europe on 28th December 1502 after leaving 200 men behind him.

War between Calicut and Cochin

Vasco Da Gama's departure was the signal for the outbreak of hostilities between the Zamorin and the Raja of Cochin. The Zamorin and the Arab merchants were thirsting for revenge on the Portuguese. The former demanded the surrender

of the Portuguese factors who were left at Cochin under the protection of the ruler, but the demand was turned down. The Zamorin, therefore, collected a large army at Ponnani and assisted by the Raja of Edapilli and the Cochin malcontents, he entered Cochin territory on the 31st March 1503[1]. In spite of some initial reverses the Zamorin scored several victories over the forces of the Cochin Raja and his Portuguese allies. However, with the onset of the monsoon the Zamorin suspended his military operations for a period of three months and returned to Calicut. During this period he employed in his service two Italians, Pero Antonio and Joao Maria in order to train his soldiers in the use of superior weapons. When the campaign started again at the end of the monsoon, Portuguese re-inforcements had arrived in India under the command of Francisco De Albuquerque, and Alfonso De Albuquerque, and the Zamorin's garrison had to pull out of Cochin. The Portuguese recaptured Cochin and built there the first European fort in India. This was followed by a truce between the Zamorin and the Portuguese, arranged on the initiative of Francisco De Albuquerque who visited Calicut for the purpose. The truce, however, proved itself to be short-lived. The Portuguese attacked some of the merchant ships belonging to the Zamorin's subjects and war was again declared in March 1504. The Zamorin attacked Cochin with a large fleet and a strong land force, but it was ably defended by Duarte Pacheco. The Zamorin was forced to retreat from Cochin on 3rd July 1504. In the meantime Lopo Soarez arrived in the Indian Ocean with a fleet of 14 ships and with Pacheco's assistance attacked [illegible] burnt Cranganore, the seat of a principality subordinat[illegible]lso got Zamorin and the base of his operations against Cochin. T[illegible] they of Lopo Soarez also carried out another important naval [illegible]h its tion. The Arabs at this time, disheartened by their trade lo[illegible] a were leaving the country in large numbers and they had asse[illegible] bled at Pantalayini Kollam a fleet of 17 ships to take them b[illegible] to Cairo and Mecca. The fleet was heavily guarded with guns [illegible] a force of 400 men against all possible attacks by the P[illegible] guese. Lopo Soarez fell on this fleet. A long and decisive battle followed in which the Portuguese scored a resounding victory. All the 17 ships were either sunk or burnt, and about 2000 Muslims were slain (1506). The fortunes of the Arabs were now at their lowest ebb and the Portuguese with a fort at Cochin and a factory at Cannanore controlled the trade of the coast.

1 For details see the *Trichur and Ernakulam District Gazetteers.*

Almieda (1505-1509)

In 1505 Francisco De Almieda arrived in Indian waters to serve a term of three years as the first Portuguese Viceroy of the Portuguese possessions in this country. His first task was to secure the Portuguese possessions on the coast by erecting and strengthening fortresses at Cannanore, Cochin and Quilon. The Zamorin was alarmed and he collected a fleet of some 200 vessels manned by Turks and Arabs to meet the Portuguese challenge. Lourenco, Almieda's son, intercepted the fleet off Cannanore with 11 vessels and defeated them with great slaughter on 10th March 1506. In April 1507 the Portuguese at Cannanore had to face a powerful attack from the Kolattiri assisted both by the Zamorin and the Arabs. The siege of Cannanore lasted for four months. It ended only on 27th August when a Portuguese fleet with 11 ships and three hundred men under Da Cunha arrived on the scene from Europe and drove back the besiegers from the place. The Kolattiri then sued for peace which was granted on terms advantageous to the Portuguese.

Meanwhile trouble was brewing in a different quarter. The Sultan of Egypt whose revenues had been seriously affected by the Portuguese policy decreed under pressure from Egyptian merchants at Calicut that the Portuguese should be driven from the east. In 1508 he sent a fleet of 12 ships and 1500 men under Mir Hussain to accomplish this object. Lourenco Almieda met the Egyptian fleet in battle at Chaul, but he was slain together with the whole of the crew of his ship. The Egyptian victory was so decisive that the Portuguese lost the command of the sea for some time. Almieda swore revenge and a year later he got it. On the 5th February 1509 the Viceroy attacked the Egyptian fleet and the 100 war boats despatched to its assistance by the Zamorin in a harbour in Gujarat. A decisive victory was gained by the Portuguese and thereafter their sovereignty of the sea was never again seriously challenged either from Egypt or from India.

Alfonso De Albuquerque (1509-1515)

Albuquerque succeeded Almieda as Governor of the Portuguese dominion in November 1509. Almieda's policy was to secure the Portuguese trade by the command of the sea and he avoided annexation of territory as far as possible. Albuquerque reversed the policy of his predecessor and attempted

to found a land empire in India by territorial conquests and colonisation. Albuquerque sought to realise this policy by occupying all places of commercial and strategic importance, by compelling native rulers to acknowledge Portuguese supremacy, by building forts on strategic points, and above all, by founding mixed colonies in the conquered territories.

One of the earliest exploits of Albuquerque was an attack on the Zamorin's palace at Calicut early in 1510. In this he was ably assisted by Marshal Cutinho who had arrived in India at the head of the fleet under special orders from the King of Portugal to destroy Calicut immediately. When the Portuguese forces reached Calicut, the Zamorin was absent from the place. They attacked and captured the palace and after plundering it set the palace and the town on fire, but the Zamorin's forces soon rallied and fell furiously upon the invaders and drove them back to their ships with great slaughter. Albuquerque was seriously wounded in the fight, and about 300 Portuguese soldiers including Marshal Cutinho died fighting. Albuquerque felt so bitter at this defeat that he approached Krishna Deva Raya of Vijayanagar for help against the Zamorin, but the Vijayanagar ruler was not in a mood to oblige the Portuguese. With the true insight of a genuine stateman, Albuquerque now realised that Portugal's true interest lay in peace and rapprochement with the Zamorin and that continued fight between the Portuguese and the Zamorin helped only the Rajas of Cochin and Cannanore. He was also convinced that in spite of Portuguese naval superiority it was impossible to cripple the power of the Zamorin on land as the latter was in control of the whole coastline from Pantalayini to Chettuvai. Therefore, in spite of the expressed dissatisfaction of the Kolattiri and of the Cochin Raja he endeavoured to come to terms with Calicut. Albequerque had however great difficulties in carrying on negotiations and arriving at a peace treaty because the Zamorin who was in power at the time was a bitter opponent of the Portuguese and was in no mood to enter negotiations with him. Hence he entered into intrigues with the Eralpad or heir-apparent of Calicut, and prevailed upon him to poison the reigning Zamorin[1]. When the Eralpad

1 The following extract may be of some interest in this connection. "When Albuquerque returned from Aden, he found the Zamorin dead. 'I am certain', the Governor informs D. Manuel, 'his brother poisoned him. In all my letters I told him that if he did so, then we could make peace.' This incitement to murder seems to have troubled

came to power, Albuquerque entered into negotiations with him and concluded a treaty of peace on December 24, 1513. The terms of the treaty were the following:

1. The Portuguese were to erect a fort at Calicut in a locality of their own selection.

2. They were to be permitted to trade as they pleased.

3. They were to be permitted to barter European goods for pepper while all other traders were to pay for it in cash.

4. The annual quantity of pepper to be supplied to them was fixed as 15000 Candies and the prices were to be governed by the rates prevailing at Cochin.

5. A part of the customs revenue was to be paid as tribute to King of Portugal.

6. The loss incurred by the destruction of the factory planted by Cabral was to be made good from the Zamorin's treasury.

7. The Portuguese were to help the Zamorin in his wars except against Cochin and Cannanore.

The treaty was a resounding victory for Albuquerque. He achieved by diplomacy what the Portuguese had so long failed to achieve by war. "The King of Calicut", says a Muhammadan historian, "rolled up the carpet of destruction and pursued the path of friendship with the Feringies".[1]. In accordance with the terms of the treaty the Portuguese set to work to erect a fort at Calicut. The site selected was on the northern bank of the Kallayi river on the southern extremity of Calicut and had the advantage of being flanked on two sides by water. The Zamorin is said to have personally exerted himself to help the Portuguese engineer Thomas Fernandis, who built the fort. After his treaty with the Zamorin the prestige of Albuquerque shot high in Europe. He sent tigers and elephants to Portugal some of which were passed on to Rome. The treaty was however a severe blow to the prestige of the Zamorin and the commercial interests of the Arabs, his traditional allies.

Albuquerque's conscience not at all; it is referred to by his admiring son without apology and accepted by the King without rebuke. Sixteenth century mentality is a little staggering at times. It is true that as the heathens were supposed to go to hell in any case, logically there could not be much harm in urging them to crime"— Elaine Sanceau, *Indies Adventure, The Amazing Career of Alfonso de Albuquerque* (1936), p. 227.

1 Quoted in *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 81.

The treaty of 1513 was shortlived, and war soon broke out again. Nevertheless, it is "an event of considerable importance in the history of Portuguese relations with Kerala. It marked the failure and the consequent abandonment of the policy of conquering Kerala..............The aim of the Portuguese was to establish their power on the coast working through the Rajahs of Cannanore and Cochin. This policy could not succeed so long as the Zamorin remained independent; and so Albuquerque looked beyond Kerala and found in Goa a base from which he could command the Arabian Sea........With the founding of Goa, Cochin lost its importance, and the Portuguese ceased to interest themselves in any very serious way in the politics of Kerala".[1].

Albuquerque was undoubtedly the greatest of the Portuguese statesmen who came to India. It was he who captured Goa and made it the Portuguese headquarters in the East. The conquest of Goa made Portugal one of the minor powers in India having direct relations with the Bahmini and Vijayanagar Kingdoms. Albuquerque also conquered Malacca in the Malay Peininsula and the island of Ormus in the Persian Gulf. Apart from these gains in the field of foreign policy, Albuquerque also worked out a sound system of government in his Indian possessions. Native institutions were retained as far as possible. Albuquerque enlisted Indians in his army and gave them western drill and training. "More than even Dupleix and Clive he was the man who discovered that Indians trained in European methods to use European arms provide a most effective instrument for imperialist aggression".[2] He also established schools for education, issued a new coinage and prohibited *Sati*. The administration of justice was made impartial. Private trade which was rampant among the Portuguese officials was suppressed. These internal reforms of Albuquerque made the Portuguese administration liberal and progressive to an extent. Moreover, as the Portuguese in India could not always rely upon a perennial supply of men from Portugal, Albuquerque persuaded Portuguese settlers to marry native women with the object of bringing into existence a body of people who could be trusted in defending the Portuguese fortresses with loyalty. Of course, this policy of establishing mixed colonies in the long run ended in failure and proved to

1 *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, pp. 80-81.
2 *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 83.

be one of the causes of Portuguese down-fall in India. In spite of this failure, Albuquerque has claims to be regarded as the greatest of Portuguese administrators in the East. During his Viceroyalty he dismissed and sent back to Portugal a number of corrupt officers. These persons spread slanderous tales about him at home and worked actively for his supersession. Lopo Soarez who was one of the officers whom Albuquerque had sent home in disgrace succeeded him as Governor. Before Albuquerque could set sail for home, he passed away at Goa on December 17, 1515.

Lopo Soarez (1515-18)

Lopo Soarez who superseded Albuquerque reversed the wise policy of his predecessor and the result was that there was considerable laxity in administration. The Portuguese officers began to engage themselves in trade on their own account and amass huge profits. In 1517 a Finance Minister was sent out from Europe to control the expenditure of the Portuguese dominion in the East and as a check on the hitherto unlimited powers of the Governor, but he found himself powerless and soon returned home in disgust. Corruption became rampant in the administration and piracy by Portuguese officials rife on the sea. The notable political event of the Governorship of Lopo Soarez was the treaty between the Portuguese and the ruler of Quilon. The *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahiddin* also mentions that in 1517 a dastardly attempt was made on the life of the Zamorin. He was invited to the Portuguese fort by the Captain of the Portuguese officers with the object of imprisoning him there. The Zamorin saw through this strategem by means of a signal shown by a certain Frank, one of the Portuguese officers who disapproved of the conspiracy and he managed to escape[1]. Hereafter there was again open hostility between Calicut and the Portuguese.

De Sequiera (1518-22)

Lopo Soarez was recalled in 1518 and was succeeded by Diogo Lopaz De Sequiera as Governor. Sequiera was as incompetent as his predecessor and he too proved a failure. During his Governorship war broke out between the Zamorin and the Raja of Cochin. The latter did not like the treaty of

1 *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahiddin*, pp. 113-114.

peace concluded between the Portuguese and the Zamorin in 1513. The reasons for this were mainly two. Firstly, the commercial prosperity which came to Cochin in the wake of the Portuguese alliance was threatened by this treaty. Secondly, the alliance between the Zamorin and the Portuguese shattered all the hopes entertained by the Cochin ruler of destroying the power of Calicut with the help of the Portuguese. Hence the Cochin Raja made persistent attempts to bring about an estrangement between the Zamorin and the Portuguese. In 1519 he induced one of his nobles to invade the territories of Calicut. In the war that ensued the Cochin Raja suffered a crushing defeat. He appealed to Sequiera for help against Calicut. Sequiera sent 36 men to assist him and the Cochin forces invaded Chettuvai in 1521. The Cochin Raja was defeated in battle, but he had achieved his object of embroiling the Zamorin with the Portuguese. At the end of this war the Zamorin's attitude towards the Portuguese underwent a change because the Portuguese help given to Cochin in time of war destroyed all his faith in Portuguese professions of friendship.

Duarte de Menzes (1522-24)

In the meantime an undeclared war was being waged on the high seas between the Portuguese and the Muslim seamen. Ever since the erection of their fortress at Calicut the Portuguese had claimed for themselves the monopoly of the export trade in ginger and pepper. They seized every Muslim ship that carried these articles on board. In the meantime the Zamorin who had concluded the peace treaty of 1513 passed away (1522). The new Zamorin (1522-1531) was not favourably disposed towards the Portuguese. The Mappilas took full advantage of the new situation. In 1523 they insulted Duarte de Menzes, the new Portuguese Governor. They captured 10 Portuguese vessels and raided the Cochin Harbour (1523). They also attacked Cranganore. They had at this time an able leader in Kutti Ali of Tanur. In 1524 Kutti Ali collected a fleet of 200 ships and bombarded the Portuguese fleet at Calicut. In the same year an open fight took place in the Calicut bazaar between the Mappilas and the Portuguese soldiers. The Portuguese power in India was facing a real crisis and De Menzes was found unequal to the task that confronted him.

Vasco Da Gama as Viceroy (1524)

The Portuguese Government thought it necessary to send out to India a strong man to restore order and in September 1524 "there arrived at the bar of Goa, Vasco Da Gama who discovered India, as Viceroy of India[1]." He was now an old man and survived only three months. Immediately on his arrival he sent D' Souza with 300 men against Kutti Ali and defeated him at Calicut[2]. During the short period of his Viceroyalty he did much to stem the rising tide of corruption and to improve the tone of the administration. The Muslim fleets were chased and dispersed, the Portuguese settlements were purged and their administration entrusted to the ablest officers. Da Gama also prohibited private trade and rehabilitated the lost prestige of the Portuguese. One of his notable achievements was that he ordered the construction of fast ships which alone could fight effectively with the Zamorin's vessels[3]. Vasco Da Gama died on the 24th December and was accorded a princely funeral in Cochin. A desultory war with the Zamorin broke out on the death of Da Gama. Da Gama's sucessor was Dom Henrique De Menzes (1524-26) and during his period of Government there was a grim struggle for naval supremacy between the Zamorin and the Portuguese.

The rise of the Kunjali Marakkars

It would be appropriate in this connection to highlight the role of the Kunjali Marakkars of Kottakkal, the hereditary Admirals of the Zamorin, in the epic fight against the Portuguese attempt to dominate Malabar trade. The origin of the Marakkars is a theme of controversy. According to Logan their family originally hailed from Pantalayini Kollam. He suggests that when Henrique de Menzes destroyed the

1 *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 48.

2 *Kerala Pazhama*, Dr. Gundert, p. 158.

3 The fleet of the Zamorin consisted mainly of small vessels or light paroes which manned by 30 or 40 rowers plied very fast. This enabled the Zamorin and his naval captains to have recourse to a kind of guerilla warfare on the sea in the fight with the Portuguese. Being very small these paroes presented an elusive and difficult target for the enemy's cannon. Hundreds of such paroes were deployed by the Zamorin and his naval capatins in the campaigns against the Portuguese with the result that the Portuguese ships could not sail on the Malabar seas without large convoys to escort them. Vasco Da Gama's order to build fast light ships was intended to meet this challenge of the Calicut fleet in Indian waters.

Muslim settlement at Pantalayini, the family moved to Trikkodi and from there again to Kottakkal at the mouth of the Kotta river. Logan writes, "They obtained the title of Kunhali Marakkar from the Zamorin. *Kunhi* means a youth, a title of distinction; *Ali* is the name of the Prophet's son-in-law, and *Marakkar* means the doer or follower of the law—*Margam*—and is applied as a title, to persons of a foreign religion like the Christians and the Muhammadans[1]." O. K. Nambiar suggests that the Kunjali Marakkars were descended from a Mappila by name Mohammed, originally a marine merchant of Cochin, who was forced by the high-handedness of the Portuguese to migrate to Ponnani, where he settled with his family, carried on his trade and sought to repair his broken fortune[2]. Alarmed at the growing power of the Portuguese and their aggressive activities on sea and land, Mohammed and his brother, Ibrahim, came down to Calicut and offered their services to the Zamorin in his war against the Portuguese. The Zamorin accepted their services and conferred on Mohammed the title of Kunju Ali, *the beloved.*[3] K. V. Krishna Iyer gives another version. According to him the original seat of the Marakkar family was Ponnani from where in course of time they spread to Tanur and other parts of the West Coast. It is suggested that when Almieda attacked Ponnani they left the place and settled themselves near Agalapuzha.[4] The Zamorin recognised and admired their courage and loyalty and bestowed on the head of the family the title of Marakkar and the special right to wear a silk turban.[5] The head of the Marakkar family enjoyed all the privileges of the Nair chieftains of the Zamorin. Their services were utilised by the Zamorin in organising his navy in the fight against the Portuguese.

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1. *Malabar Manual,* Vol. I, Logan,, p. 330.
2. *Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen,* O. K. Nambiar, p. 98.
3. "In Malayalam, *Kunju* is an endearing term. It is a diminutive prefix to proper nouns and signifies affection. *Marakkar* means Captain or owner of a ship, from Tamil *Marakalam,* ship." (*Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen,* O. K. Nambiar, p. 98).
4. *The Zamorins of Calicut,* K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 210.
5. Mention may also be made in this connection of the view which ascribes to the Kunjali Marakkars a foreign origin. It is suggested that they were the descendants of the Arab merchants who came to trade with the Malabar coast in the 7th Century A.D. See the Chapter on *Keralavum Marakkarvamsavum* (pp. 55-69) in *Charitra Keralam* by P. A. Syed Muhammed.

Exploits of Kutti Ali and Kunjali II.

The Kunjalis chose brave and able men to man their navy. Kutti Ali of Tanur was the bravest and ablest of them all. In 1524 under his command the Calicut fleet inflicted heavy damage on Portuguese trade. By his hit and run tactics, Kutti Ali struck terror into the hearts of the Portuguese. He avoided pitched battles and hit Portuguese shipping and trade whenever possible. Henrique de Menzes organised a powerful fleet and proceeded against Kutti Ali. Thirty-eight ships belonging to Kutti Ali were burnt and a large number of Mappilas were killed. Several houses, ships and mosques were destroyed. In 1525 De Menzes attacked Pantalayini Kollam. In this campaign the Raja of Purakkad was present as an ally of the Portuguese. The Portuguese Governor thought the Raja to be indifferent, and fired a shot at him to wake him up. The shot broke his leg and turned him into a bitter enemy of the Portuguese. He joined the party of the Zamorin, and was later present at the siege of the Cochin fort.

While the campaign against the Portuguese was being pursued vigorously on the sea, the Zamorin's forces carried on the war on land also. The Portuguese fort at Calicut was besieged by the Zamorin's army under his personal direction, but it was ably defended by Dom Joao De Lima. Though the Zamorin did not succeed in capturing the fort, the Portuguese themselves were forced to abandon it after demolishing it and razing its walls to the ground in accordance with the instructions received from the King of Portugal.

Dom Henrique De Menzes died in 1526 and was succeeded as Governor by Lope Vaz De Sampayo (1526-29). The war between the Portuguese and the Zamorin continued unabated on the sea. The Zamorin's fleet under Kutti Ali continued to cause heavy damage to Portuguese shipping and trade. The chieftain of Purakkad also helped the Zamorin in his campaign against the Portuguese. The Portuguese reorganised their fleet, and attacked the Zamorin's fleet. In 1528 Kutti Ali was taken prisoner and Purakkad was captured and plundered.[1]

1. Some of the accounts relating to the incident speak of a Chinna Kutti Ali. Danvers writes as follows. "Lopo Vas also sent out on several fleets to secure the seas and clear them of Moorish ships. One of these, under the command of Dom Joao de Eca, captured fifty prizes, laden with all sorts of goods; he burnt the

After this debacle the Zamorin fitted another fleet under Pachachi Marakkar, a relation of Kutti Ali. He also sent with him a merchant of Cairo by name Ali Ibrahim, and Kunjali II, the young son of Kutti Ali. Kunjali II proved himself to be one of the greatest of the Zamorin's Admirals. Under his leadership the Kunjali Marakkars carried the war into the enemy's territory by attacking the Portuguese possessions in Ceylon and the East Coast.[1] Portuguese trade in the East suffered heavily as a consequence of the activities of Kunjali II and Sampayo's policy came in for condemnation at the hands of the Home Government.

Portuguese acquisition of Chaliyam

In October 1529 Sampayo's successor Nuno da Cunha arrived with orders to send Sampayo in custody to Europe. Under the new Viceroy the naval warfare with the Zamorin was reopened. The Calicut coast was effectively blockaded and 27 large ships laden with merchandise were seized. The Portuguese again became powerful in Indian waters. Nuno da Cunha conceived the idea of building a Portuguese fortress at Chaliyam at the mouth of the Beypore river which ran

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town of Mangalor, and meeting afterwards a fleet of seventy paros, belonging to Calicut, under the Command of Chinese Cutiale he fought them, captured most of the vessels, killing some 1,500 Moors, and taking nearly an equal number prisoners, amongst whom was the Commander Cutiale" (Vide *Portuguese in India,* Vol. II p. 386). Dr. Gundert in his *Kerala Pazhama* records that China Kutti Ali was released for a ransom of 500 *Pantalacoons* and that before he was set free he was compelled to swear on the Quran that he would not fight against the Portuguese (Vide *Kerala Pazhama,* p. 178). It is not quite clear whether there were actually two Kutti Alis. K. M. Panikkar in his *'A History of Kerala'* speaks only of one Kutti Ali. According to O. K. Nambiar there were, however, two Kutti Alis. He says that the younger or Chinna Kutti Ali who was taken prisoner and later released was the brother of Kutti Ali. (*Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen,* p. 103).

1 It may be mentioned in this connection that during this period there was an internal strife in Ceylon between the reigning King Bhuveneka Bahu, and his brother Mayadunna. The Portuguese sided with the former and the Zamorin with the latter. The Calicut navy ably commanded by Kunjali II, Pachachi Marakkar, and Ali Ibrahim played a heroic role in the fight that took place between the rival naval powers in Ceylon till 1539. For details see *Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen,* O. K. Nambiar, pp. 105-129.

through the middle of the Zamorin's territory, cutting it into two equal halves. Chaliyam and the surrounding area belonged to the Raja of Tanur, who was not favourably disposed towards the Zamorin. The Portuguese Governor entered into negotiations with this Raja and obtained permission to erect a fort at Chaliyam and garrison it with Portuguese troops.[1] The building of the Portuguese fort at Chaliyam was destined to exercise a potent influence on the future course of events. Chaliyam commanded the trade between Arabia and Calicut and the Portuguese, securely posted here, could harass the Zamorin's fleet and hamper Muslim trade. The Portuguese hold on the Muslim trade became stronger than ever before. However, the strategic value of the Chaliyam fortress lay in the fact that it gave the Portuguese a base from where they could thrust into the heart of the Zamorin's territory. In fact, the events of the next 40 years may be summed up as a series of fruitless attempts on the part of the Muslim traders to break the chains that bound them, and on the part of the Zamorin to expel the Portuguese from the position of vantage they held at Chaliyam.

Warfare at Sea

The Calicut fleet was ably commanded by Kunjali II who was more than a match for the Portuguese naval veterans. It was a pastime with Kunjali to capture Portuguese ships, and massacre the entire crew. In one year he captured no less than 50 ships. The activities of Kunjali led to the intensification of the naval warfare between the Portuguese and the Zamorin. In the meantime, the Portuguese in India had to face the threat of a new combination of hostile forces. An alliance was made between Cambay and Calicut, and attempts were made to obtain the help of the Turks who had now become the masters of Egypt. According to the understanding arrived at the Zamorin attacked the Portuguese at Cranganore, but the latter defended themselves with the help of the Cochin Raja. At the same time the Portuguese also successfully attacked the domain of the Raja of Edappilli who was a close ally of the Zamorin, and plundered his capital. At this juncture Zamorin's fleet under Kunjali appeared before Cochin to divert

1. According to Zainuddin, the author of the *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahiddin*, the Portuguese destroyed the ancient mosque which was built at Chaliyam on the first introduction of Islam in Malabar and made use of its materials for the building of the fort and the church.

the attention of the Portuguese and compel them to withdraw their forces from Edappilli. Kunjali's tactics proved eminently successful as the Portuguese soon withdrew all their forces from Edappilli to meet the new threat. In 1538 the Portuguese fleet under Martin De Sousa inflicted a crushing defeat on the Marakkars in a pitched battle, and got the sea cleared for a short time.

The Treaty of 1540 between the Zamorin and the Portuguese.

In the meantime Sulaiman Pasha, the Turkish Governor of Egypt, arrived off the Gujarat coast under instruction from Sultan Sulaiman the Magnificent "to avert the evil deeds of the Portuguese infidels and remove their flag from the sea." Though grossly exaggerated accounts of the might of the Grand Sultan and his fleet were current in India, his expedition turned out to be little more than a military adventure which produced no tangible results. He engaged himself in a naval demonstration off the Gujarat coast and returned to Egypt without engaging the Portuguese in decisive battle. This was a severe blow to the Zamorin who had entertained high hopes of the Indo-Egyptian Axis and had looked forward to the Turks for effective and sustained support in his attempts to expel the Portuguese from the Malabar coast. The Zamorin was in a pitiable predicament. The prolonged struggle with the Portuguese had depleted his treasury and the trade of Calicut was fast declining. Moreover, the Portuguese had entrenched themselves at Chaliyam and were in a position to carry the war into his territory. In these circumstances he began to think in terms of a fresh treaty of peace with the Portuguese. The treaty which was formally negotiated between him and De Alvaro who was specially sent by the Portuguese to Calicut for the purpose was signed on the Galleon *S. Mathews* at the bar of Ponnani on the 1st January 1540. According to the terms of this treaty the Zamorin was to sell all the pepper from his lands to the King of Portugal at the rates prevailing in Cochin and ginger at 92 *fanams* per *bhara*. The Zamorin was entitled to send to Portugal 3½ *bharas* of pepper on his own account for every hundred *bharas* bought by the King of Portugal. The transportation, sale etc., of the Zamorin's pepper was to be entirely at the risk of the Portuguese King and the Zamorin was to lose nothing if the ships were damaged or goods lost. Again, part of the Portuguese merchandise was to be sold at Calicut so that the

Zamorin might get his customary duties on imports. The Zamorin also agreed to accept Portuguese passports for the navigation of Arab vessels. Further he undertook not to wage war against the friends of the Portuguese (meaning the Cochin Raja). At the same time it was also agreed that in case he waged war, the terms of the treaty should not be violated. The Portuguese on their side agreed to maintain neutrality in any war which the Zamorin might wage. This treaty secured for the Zamorin certain special advantages. He was now assured of a settled income from Portuguese trade without any risk and the languishing trade of Calicut once again revived. He secured for himself full freedom of action against the Cochin ruler as the Portuguese had promised to follow a policy of non-intervention in his wars. The Portuguese on their part also gained certain advantages from this treaty. They got practically the monopoly of trade in pepper and ginger at the Calicut port as the Zamorin had agreed to sell these commodities exclusively to them. Moreover, they also got unalloyed freedom of action against other Kerala princes in view of the Zamorin's assurance of non-intervention in their wars. Thus the treaty of 1540 was advantageous both to the Zamorin and the Portuguese. But it lasted only for 10 years.

Portuguese atrocities

In 1550 war again broke out between the Zamorin and the Portuguese when the latter interfered in a dispute between the rulers of Cochin and Vadakkumkoor (the Pimenta or Pepper country of the Portuguese). The Portuguese helped the Raja of Cochin while the Zamorin's sympathies lay with Vadakkumkoor. The ruler of Vadakkumkoor was slain in the very first battle fought at Vaduthala. The death of the Vadakkumkoor chief, who was the Zamorin's feudatory and relative, led to the entry of Calicut into the war. The Zamorin marched south to avenge his friend's death and won several battles. The Portuguese, therefore, retaliated by making descents on the coast towns, particularly on Pantalayini Kollam, destroying mosques and houses and massacring the local population. By 1555 the desultory war had exhausted the resources of both the Zamorin and his Muslim subjects and peace was restored on condition that the Portuguese ship-passes should be taken out by traders.[1] The Portuguese were

1. *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, p. 329.

most stringent in enforcing their pass rules and this led to constant friction between them and the Muslim merchants. They confiscated all vessels not carrying their passes and ill-treated the crews. According to Zainuddin, the Portuguese massacred the crews by cutting their throats or tying them up with ropes or in nets and throwing them overboard. These stringent measures led to the Muslim seamen fitting out fleets of small boats to hamper the commerce of the Portuguese and their allies. In this they were at first very successful and the Portuguese thereupon adopted a policy of indiscriminate plunder of the property of Muslims and their forcible conversion to Christianity. Zainuddin's scathing indictment of the Portuguese over these and similar acts of oppression is indeed revealing. They were "guilty of actions the most diabolical and infamous, such indeed as are beyond the power of description; they having made the Muhammadans to be a just and a laughing stock, displaying towards them the greatest contempt; employing them to draw water from the wells and in other menial employments; spitting in their faces and upon their persons; hindering them on their journeys, particularly when proceeding on voyages to Mecca; destroying their property; burning their dwellings and mosques; seizing their ships; defacing and treading under foot their archives and writings; burning their records; profaning the sanctuaries of their mosques; even striving to make the professors of Islamism apostates from their creed and worshippers of their crucifixes, and seeking, by bribes of money, to induce to their apostasy. Moreover, decking out their women with jewels and fine clothing in order to lead away and entice after them the women of the Muhammadans; slaying also the pilgrims to Mecca and all who embraced Islamism, and practising upon them all kinds of cruelties; openly uttering execrations upon the Prophet of God (upon whom may the divine favour and grace for ever rest); confining his followers and incarcerating them. Further binding them with ponderous shackles and exposing them in the markets for sale, after the manner that slaves are sold: and when so exposed, torturing them with all sorts of painful inflictions, in order to exact more from them for their freedom. Huddling them together into a dark noisome and horrible building; and when performing the ablutions directed by their law, beating them with slippers; torturing them with fire; selling and making slaves of some, and harassing others with disgusting employments;

in short, in their treatment of the Muhammadans they proved themselves devoid of all compassion." "For how many women of noble birth, thus made captive (at sea) did they not incarcerate, afterwards violating their persons for the production of Christian children, who were brought up enemies to the religion of God and taught to oppress its professors? How many noble Saids, too, and learned and worthy men did they not imprison and persecute even unto death! How many Moslems, both men and women, did they not compel to embrace Christianity! And how many acts of this kind, atrocious and wicked, the enumeration of which would require volumes, did they not commit! May the All Gracious and Merciful God consign them to eternal destruction!" "Notwithstanding all this, however, they preserved an outward show of peace towards the Muhammadans in consequence of their being compelled to dwell amongst them, since the chief part of the population of the sea-ports consisted of Muhammadans."[1]

The Capture of Chaliyam

The year 1565 was an eventful one in the history of South India, since in that year the Hindu Empire of Vijayanagar suffered a staggering defeat at the hands of the Bahmani Sultans in the famous battle of Talikotta. The defeat of Vijayanagar was a severe blow to the Portuguese who were all along in alliance with its Hindu rulers. The political result of the Hindu defeat at Talikotta was soon seen in the combination of the Muhammadan rulers of India with the Zamorin of Calicut and the king of Achin against the Portuguese. In 1569 envoys came to the Zamorin from Adil Shah of Bijapur and Nizam Shah of Ahamednagar seeking his assistance in a joint enterprise against the Portuguese in the west coast. It was arranged that Adil Shah should attack Goa, Nizam Shah should march against Chaul, and the Zamorin should proceed against Chaliyam. While the first two projects ended in failure the Zamorin's attack by land on Chaliyam was an unqualified success. The Chaliyam fort had been a thorn in the Zamorin's side since it was built in 1531 and he was waiting for an opportunity to demolish it. The opportunity presented itself in 1571. The operations against Chaliyam were conducted by the Zamorin himself in person. The fort was defended by the Portuguese garrison under Dom Jorge De Castro, the 80 year old Captain. The siege of Chaliyam

1. Quoted in *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, pp. 331-332.

was so complete and effective that the besieged garrison's provisions ran short and they were forced to feed on dogs and "animals of a similar vile impure nature."[1] Supplies sent from Cochin and Cannanore were intercepted by the Zamorin's fleet. Eventually the Portuguese managed to march out of the fort under the escort of the Raja of Tanur (Vettat Raja) who had helped and abetted them. From Tanur they were shipped to Cochin. A relieving expedition from Goa arrived too late to be of any assistance. The victory of the Zamorin was decisive and the Chaliyam fort surrendered to him.[2] The fort had been a source of such trouble and annoyance to him that the Zamorin demolished it entirely "leaving not one stone upon another." He made the site "a barren waste transporting to Calicut the greater part of the stones and masonry", while he gave the remainder to be used for rebuilding the Jamat Mosque which the Portuguese had demolished for building their fort. The ground and the surrounding area were given, as previously arranged, to the Raja of Chaliyam (Parappanad Raja) for the assistance rendered by him on the occasion.

The fall of Chaliyam was a turning point in the history of the Portuguese power in Kerala. It marked the virtual culmination of the struggle between the Zamorin and the Portuguese which began in 1506 with the invasion of Calicut by Marshal Cutinho. "With their expulsion from Chaliyam", says K. M. Panikkar "it may be said that the Portuguese effort to control Malabar came to an end .... Seventy years of conflict had come to nothing and the victory in this prolonged conflict lay decisively with the ruler of Calicut."[3].

Renewal of Portuguese Naval Operations

In spite of their expulsion from Chaliyam the Portuguese continued their warlike activities on the sea. In 1572 they launched an attack on Chaliyam and burnt it. In the following

1. A graphic description of the siege of Chaliyam is given in the *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahiddin*.
2. Jorge De Castro the Portuguese Captain who surrendered the fort to the Zamorin was later executed by the Portuguese authorities in the market place of Goa.
3. *Malabar and the Portuguese*, K. M. Panikkar, pp. 134-135.

year they made a descent on Parappanangadi. The town was pillaged and its temples and mosques were set on fire. The coast towns suffered incalculable harm as a result of the frequent Portuguese raids. In 1577 a fleet of 50 Arab Ships, returning from South Canara laden with rice, was seized by the Portuguese and 3.000 Arab sailors, it is said, were slain and "the trade of the Muhammadans by this blow became almost annihilated." This action of the Portuguese created famine conditions in the land. In 1578 the Portuguese opened negotiations for peace with the Zamorin. The Zamorin offered to allow them to build a fort at Calicut. The Portuguese, on the other hand, wanted to have a fort at Ponnani, but the Zamorin was not willing to comply with this request. Hence the negotiations fizzled out. In 1579 the Zamorin had temporarily established his headquarters at Cranganore. The Cochin Raja tried in vain to dislodge him from there with Portuguese help. Embittered by this failure the Portuguese carried on their hostilities against the Zamorin and his subjects with greater vigour. Such coast towns as Calicut, Kappat, Pantalayini Kollam, Trikkodi and Ponnani became targets of frequent Portuguese attacks. Intercourse between various ports was cut off and importation of rice from South Canara came to a standstill. All this resulted in the outbreak of a severe famine and caused distress to the people in the coastal areas.

Portuguese Alliance with the Zamorin against the Kunjalis

In the meantime misunderstandings arose between the Portuguese and the Cochin Raja and the former once again decided to try a rapprochement with the Zamorin. In 1584 they reopened negotiations with the Zamorin. With very great reluctance the Zamorin at last allowed the Portuguese to have a factory at Ponnani though not a fort and obtained in return the right of navigation for his subjects to the ports of Gujarat, Persia and Arabia. In 1588 a new Zamorin came to the throne and being more friendly towards the Portuguese than his predecessor, he gave them permission to settle at Calicut. In 1591 he donated to the Portuguese land and building materials for the erection of a church and himself laid the foundation stone. This Zamorin died in 1597 and was succeeded by another who continued the pro-Portuguese policy of his predecessor. The Zamorin (1597-99) even went to the extent of allying himself with the Portuguese against the Kunjali

Marakkars of Kottakkal who in the past had rendered meritorious services to the royal house of Calicut as the hereditary admirals.

Events leading to the estrangement between the Zamorin and the Kunjalis may be briefly told. After the reconquest of Chaliyam by the Zamorin in 1571 the power of the Kunjalis reached its zenith. Kunjali III who was now the head of the family consolidated his power by building a fortress (*Marakkar Kotta*) at Kottakkal (Puthupattanam) with the Zamorin's permission. He assumed the position of a feudatory of the Zamorin. His power was so great that he exercised all the privileges and prerogatives enjoyed by the Nair chiefs of the Zamorin. The Zamorin's action in allowing the Portuguese to build a factory at Ponnani (1584) was disapproved of by the Kunjalis as the presence of the Portuguese at Ponnani was a threat to their power. The Kunjalis defeated the Portuguese in two naval battles, one in 1586 and the other in 1589, and they secured for themselves the command of the Malabar seas. Khwaji Moosa, the nephew of the Kunjalis, even contemplated an attack on the Portuguese station at Colombo, but his designs were thwarted by timely action on the part of the Portuguese squadron under Andre Furtado. In a naval encounter Moosa's fleet was destroyed and he himself had a narrow escape. This defeat did not discourage the Kunjali. He reorganised his fleet and inflicted heavy damage on Portuguese shipping and trade. In 1591 the Portuguese made peace with the Kunjalis through the good offices of a Catholic priest.

In 1595 Kunjali IV became the chief of the Kunjali Marakkars. He strengthened the fortifications at Kottakkal. Towers heavily armed with cannon were erected and deep trenches were laid. Under Kunjali IV the Marakkars became an irresistible political force and a grave menace to Portuguese ambitions on the Malabar coast. But Kunjali became proud and haughty being intoxicated with power. He threw off his allegiance to the Zamorin and styled himself "King of the Moors" and "Lord of the Indian Seas." He even showed discourtesy to his lord, the Zamorin, by cutting off the tail of one of his elephants and illtreating a Nair noble who was sent to him for obtaining an explanation of his conduct. The estrangement between the Zamorin and Kunjali gave the Portuguese their long awaited opportunity to drive a wedge between the two. An agreement was duly entered into between the Portuguese and the Zamorin to destroy the power of the

Kunjalis[1]. It is indeed nothing less than a historical irony that the King of Calicut had to ally himself with his traditional enemy in order to fight against the Kunjalis who had till then served in the vanguard of the sea fight carried on by the Zamorin against the Portuguese.

Fall of the Kunjalis

In pursuance of the agreement between the Portuguese and the Zamorin a joint expedition was sent against *Marakkar Kotta* in 1598. But Kunjali had gathered a powerful force to meet the attack and the expedition ended in fiasco, causing heavy losses to the Zamorin and his new ally. Lack of co-ordination between the military and naval forces was the primary cause of the failure of this expedition. Before another attack could be launched the reigning Zamorin died. His successor (1599-1606) made a determined effort to destroy the power of the Marakkars with the continued help of the Portuguese. According to the agreement arrived at between the Zamorin and the Portuguese the land forces required for the attack on *Marakkar Kotta* were to be mobilised by the former while the fleet required for the attack was to be organised by the latter. It was further agreed that the spoils of war should be shared equally between the two alliance parties and also that if Kunjali were to be captured alive, he should be kept in honourable custody by the Portuguese. The town and the fortress were, however, to remain in the possession of the Zamorin.

In 1600 the Zamorin came to Kottakkal at the head of a large army of 6,000 men and besieged the fortress of Kunjali. The Zamorin's forces were helped from the sea by Andre Furtado, the commander of the Portuguese fleet, and the siege of *Kottakkal* was pressed with great vigour according to plan. Kunjali found his position hopeless and surrendered to the

1. Reference may be made in this connection to the decisive role of the Jesuit missionaries in securing the rapprochement between the Zamorin and the Portuguese. The Jesuits were received with great cordiality at Calicut, and the Zamorin utilised their services in settling the terms of the agreement with the Portuguese. *The Annual Letters of the Society of Jesus* and other Jesuit Reports give us a lot of interesting information about the Zamorin, the Kunjalis, and the political conditions in Calicut. Attention is invited to pages 212-248 of the *Jesuits in Malabar*, Vol. I, by Ferroli.

Zamorin on promise of pardon. In accordance with the terms of the agreement with the Portuguese the Zamorin handed over Kunjali to the Portuguese and took possession of Kottakkal. The Portuguese who were thirsting for the blood of the Marakkars took Kunjali IV and his men to Goa and executed them in cold blood. "Kunjalis' body was quartered and exhibited on the beach at Bardes and Panjim. His head was salted and conveyed to Cannanore, there to be stuck on a standard for a terror to the Moors[1]." The action of the Portuguese in hanging Kunjali was a violation of their plighted word and this brought about an open rupture between the Zamorin and the Portuguese once again.

An Estimate of the role of the Kunjalis

Although the Portuguese regarded the Kunjalis to be pirates, they were in fact the subjects of the Zamorin and played a leading role in his fight against the Portuguese. As the hereditary Admirals of the Zamorins they organised the Calicut fleet and made it an effective fighting instrument. It was the light paroes manned by the Mappila seamen commanded by the Kunjali Marakkars that caused incalculable harm to Portuguese shipping and trade and shattered Portuguese supremacy in the Malabar seas. It was indeed tragic that the power of the Kunjalis should have been crushed by the Portuguese with the help of the Zamorin. Even during the fatal hour of their defeat the Kunjalis were too proud to surrender to the Portuguese. They surrendered only to the Zamorin who was their lord and suzerain. The memory of the Kunjalis and their brave exploits is cherished by the local population even today. "There can be no doubt that the lives of these chiefs reflect glory and honour on all Malabar, for their achievements against the naval tyranny of the Portuguese form indeed a great chapter in the history of Malabar"[2].

The Decline of the Portuguese and the Coming of other European Powers

In spite of the fall of the Kunjalis the days of Portuguese supremacy were numbered. Several factors conspired to hasten the doom of the Portuguese power in Kerala[3]. In 1580 Spain

1. *Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen*, O. K. Nambiar, pp. 198-199.
2. *Malabar and the Portuguese*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 146.
3. A detailed account of the causes of the Portuguese downfall will be given in the *Ernakulam District Gazetteer*.

subdued Portugal and the control of Portuguese possessions in the East passed into Spanish hands. This was a serious blow to Portuguese prestige in India. Almost contemporaneous with the Spanish conquest of Portugal another event took place which influenced the fate of India in general and of Kerala in particular, for in 1580-81 Holland declared its independence of Spain. In 1594-95 Houtman organised the Dutch East India Company. On 31st December, 1600 the English East India Company of London was formed. In 1611-12 the United French East India Company came into existence. The interest of the next few decades lies in the attempts of the Dutch, the English and the French to obtain a footing in Kerala.

The Zamorin's relations with the Dutch

We may briefly survey the relations between the Zamorin and the Dutch. Though the Dutch period in the history of Kerala is supposed to begin only with their capture of Cochin from the Portuguese in 1663, individual Dutchmen had contacts with the Kerala Coast even from earlier days. The Dutch Admiral Steven Van Der Hagen sailed for Kerala in 1603 under instruction from the Dutch East India Company. He reached Calicut in October 1604 and was cordially received by the officers of the Zamorin. In spite of Portuguese opposition, he was able to enter into treaty with the Zamorin on November 11, 1604[1]. This treaty was an offensive and defensive alliance for the purpose of driving the Portuguese and their associates not only from the territories of Calicut but also from the whole of India. The Dutch were allowed to trade at Calicut and station merchants there for the purpose. Neither side was to enter into a peace treaty with the Portuguese without the prior knowledge of the other. The treaty is important because it was the first political agreement entered into between the Dutch and a ruling prince of India. However, it did not produce any tangible political results. Though the Zamorin permitted the Dutch to have trade with his people they did not give him any substantial help in his wars.

The next important Dutchman who visited Calicut was Admiral Verhoff (1608). The Zamorin and the Admiral exchanged costly presents. The Zamorin requested the visitor to help him with 6 ships in his fight against the Portuguese,

1. *A Survey of the Rise of the Dutch Power in Malabar* (1603-78, Dr. T. I. Poonen, pp. 46-47.

but the request was not granted. However a fresh treaty was signed which confirmed the treaty of 1604 and repeated the Dutch promise to assist the Zamorin in expelling the Portuguese. The Zamorin, on his part, granted certain trade concessions to the Dutch at Calicut. He promised them free trade in his dominion, and offered a spacious store house for storing goods and a lodge to live. The treaty of 1608 also failed to produce any important results. The reason for this was that the Dutch were at this time not very keen on the expansion of Malabar trade as there was nothing to enthuse them except pepper which they had already had in abundance. In 1610 when three Dutch ships came to the Coromandel Coast two envoys again came to Calicut and met the Zamorin. A fresh treaty was concluded of which the most important terms were the following:—(1) The Dutch were to have a place for building a lodge. (2) They were to pay 2% toll on imports and exports. (3) The Portuguese were to be resisted. (4) All the merchants were to carry on free trade with the Dutch.

In 1616 Van Den Broecke, another Dutchman, visited Calicut under instructions from the Dutch Governor-General at Batavia. He had an interview with the son of the Zamorin as the latter was away fighting in Cochin. The Dutch were now seriously exploring the possibilities of bringing about an alliance of the princes of Kerala to oust the Portuguese from Malabar coast but such an alliance did not materialise soon. In 1619 the Dutch and the English arrived at an agreement to act in unison against the Portuguese in Malabar waters, and a joint fleet was despatched in the autumn of 1621 to blockade the Portuguese possessions on the Malabar coast. In 1623 Goa was blockaded by the combined English and Dutch fleet.

In December 1625 Van Speult who had played a notable part in the 'Amboyna Massacre' came to Calicut. The Zamorin, who was at this time engaged in his war with Cochin, was at Chettuvai, and Van Speult met him there at his request. The Zamorin offered facilities to the Dutch to establish a factory in his dominion and undertook to deliver annually 3,000 candies of pepper. The draft of a formal treaty was prepared, but the Arab merchants dissuaded the Zamorin from signing it.

In the meantime the Portuguese position on the Malabar Coast was steadily deteriorating. They had lost the bulk of their trade. The Dutch were destined before long to step

into the shoes of the Portuguese. In May 1642 a treaty was concluded by the Dutch with the Raja of Purakkad for the delivery of pepper and ginger. The Dutch were permitted to build a factory in his territory and they were to help the Raja in his wars. This was followed by a treaty with the Raja of Kayamkulam and the establishment of a Dutch factory there. The Dutch threat to the Portuguese strongholds in Kerala increased with the Dutch conquest of Colombo in 1656. In December 1658 the Dutch captured the Portuguese fortress of Quilon. Tangasseri fell to the Dutch in 1661 and Cranganore in the next year. In January 1663 the Dutch captured Cochin from the Portuguese and installed their partisan on the throne. Cannanore was also taken in the same year. Except for small English factories at Ponnani and Calicut the Dutch monopoly of the foreign trade of the Kerala coast was now complete and many of the important sites for commerce were in their hands. But with the trade of the Portuguese the Dutch also inherited their difficulties. In 1691 they were forced to abandon Chettuvai to the Zamorin and in 1697 they withdrew from their smaller outposts, dismantled parts of their ports at Tangasserri, Cranganore and Cannanore and reduced that at Cochin to half its former size. The possession of Chettuvai gave the Zamorin a commanding position in the flank of Cochin and he quickly followed up this advantage. War broke out in 1701 and for 9 years the defence of their ally the Raja of Cochin involved the Dutch in disastrous military operations against the Zamorin. They reoccupied Chettuvai in 1717 but once more their profits had disappeared and in 1721 the Dutch East India Company formally withdrew from all interference in native wars. This momentous decision was the turning point of their fortunes in the West Coast of India. The future lay with the English[1].

Administration, life and culture under the Zamorins in the 16th and 17th centuries

Among the major sources of our information on the subject are the accounts of foreign travellers who visited Kerala, the most important of them being Duarte Barbosa (1503), Ludovico Varthema (1503-1508), Linschoten (1583-1589) Pyrard de Laval (1607), Pietro Della Valle (1624) and Dr. Fryer.

1. A more detailed account of the Zamorin's relations with the Dutch is given in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*.

Administration

The Government of the Zamorin was an autocracy tempered by custom, or what is called *Maryada, Margom, or Acharam* in Malayalam. Succession to the throne was regulated by the *Marumakkathayam* law according to which the eldest male member tracing descent through the female line in the Zamorin's family became the ruler. The formal inauguration of the Zamorin was called *Ariyittuvazcha*. It consisted of a series of ceremonies which took place immediately after the funeral ceremonies of the deceased Zamorin called *Tiruvanthali*[1].

The king was the fountain of honour and granted to his subjects such hereditary titles as Achan, Kaimal, Patanayar, Paranambi, Menon, Koya, Marakkar, Moopan, Arayan, etc. It was his prerogative to grant to his subjects the right of wearing certain kinds of ornaments, the right of carrying certain kinds of lamps, the use of special conveyances like palanquins, and the right of covering the roof with tiles. The recipients of the honours and privileges offered *Kazhcha* or presents to the sovereign on such occasions.

The Zamorin was helped in the task of administration by four chief ministers called *Sarvadhikaryakkars* and a number of minor ministers called *Karyakkars*. The Mangat Achan who held the first rank among the chief ministers occupied a unique position in the court. He was present at all important functions and governed the kingdom during the interval between the death of one Zamorin and the succession of another. Tamme or Dharmoth Panikkar was the hereditary instructor-in-arms of the Zamorin and was in charge of the *Kalari* or Gymnasium where the young princes were given military training. Tinayancheri Elayath and Varakkal Paranambi were the two Brahmin Ministers of the Zamorin. Being Brahmins they enjoyed certain privileges which were denied to the Achan and Panikkar.

The Zamorin's kingdom was divided for administrative purposes into *Nads* or Districts, each of which was governed by a *Naduvazhi* or Governor, who held his office by hereditary right. The Naduvazhi had to pay *Purushantaram* or succession fee which depended upon the size of the *Nadu* or

1. A detailed account of the *Ariyittuvazcha* and *Tiruvanthali* is given in Chapter II of *The Zamorins of Calicut* by K. V. Krishna Iyer, pp. 17-35.

territories in his charge. In addition to *Purushantaram* the *Naduvazhis* had also to send presents to the Zamorin on important ceremonial occasions at the time of the two great festivals of Onam and Vishu. They were also to be present at such functions as *Thiruvanthali, Ariyittuvazcha* and *Mamamkom*. The most important duty of the *Naduvazhi* was, however, to come to the help of the Zamorin in his wars at the head of his Nair militia. The *Naduvazhis* represented their sovereign in their respective *Nads* and exercised all powers in his name. The system had however its defects. The conflicting interests and mutual jealousies of these hereditary Chiefs led to perpetual quarrels and faction fights, and the country was generally in a state of political turmoil.

The Zamorin had also under him a number of civil servants. The taxes due to the State were collected by *Karyakkars* and regular accounts were submitted by them to the *Menokkies* or accountants of the palace. Records and accounts were kept according to the Kollam Era beginning in 825 A.D. Duarte Barbosa is all admiration for the way in which records and accounts were kept. "The King of Calicut", says Barbosa, "continually keeps a multitude of writers in his palace, who sit in a corner far from him; they write upon a raised platform, everything connected with the King's Exchequer and with the justice and governance of the realm. They write on long and stiff palm leaves, with an iron style without ink .... And there are seven or eight more, the King's private writers, men held in great esteem, who stand always before the King, with their styles in their hands and the bundle of leaves under their arms. Each one of them has a number of these leaves in blank, sealed by the King at the top. And when the King desires to give or to do anything as to which he had to provide he tells his wishes to each of these men and they write it down from the Royal seal to the bottom, and thus the order is given to whomsoever it concerns."[1]

The military organisation of Calicut was also feudal in character. In every *Desam* there was a *Kalari* or Gymnasium maintained by hereditary instructors for giving military training to the Nair youths. The weapons in the use of which they aimed to acquire proficiency were the sword and shield, the bow and arrow and the lance. The course of training in

1. *The Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, pp. 18-19.

the gymnasium was spread over a number of years. On leaving the institution every young man appeared before the King or the *Naduvazhi* chief, presented the customary *Nuzzar* and received his sword from him. After this he became a formal member of the protector guild and was bound to fight and die whenever called upon to do so by his chief. The army of the Zamorin consisted mainly of such feudal contingents brought into the field by the *Naduvazhis*. At the same time, standing armies were also maintained at important places like Calicut under the command of officers called *Talachennavar*. There was also a cavalry force commanded by the Kutiravattathu Nair, but it was hardly an effective fighting instrument and was meant more for display than for battle. There was also an ordnance department under the Brahmin minister Tinayancheri Elayath, who was also known as *Vedikurukkal* or instructor in firing. The Zamorin had also under him an efficient navy which too like the army was organised on feudal principles. The navy was manned mainly by the Mappilas and the Kunjali Marakkars were its hereditary Admirals[1]. Every port in the Kingdom had a chief pilot or *Thura Marakkar* whose responsibility it was to ensure the safe anchoring of ships.

The administration of justice was based on certain well established principles. There was no written code of laws during this period. Custom or *Maryada* governed settlement of disputes. The customary laws of the land were based more or less on the *Sastras*, the *Bible* and the *Koran*, according as the parties concerned were Hindus, Christians or Muslims. The King was the fountain of justice, but in the discharge of his judicial duties he was assisted not only by his officers but also in some special cases by Brahmins well-versed in the *Sastras*[2]. Pyrard De Lavel (1607) observes, "As for justice, it proceeds from the king alone, and throughout all his kingdom there is no other judge but he. For all that, justice is

1. It is said that in order to get sufficient number of Mappilas to man their navies the Zamorins of Calicut even directed that one or more male members of the families of Hindu fishermen should be brought up as Muslims. Logan writing in 1887 recorded that "this practice has continued down to modern times". *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I. p. 197.

2. In Calicut Town the Governor or *Talachennavar* (Taliye of Barbosa) possessed the right of administering justice, subject of course to the over-all control of the King.

well administered and awarded to all gratuitously."[1] However, it was local *ad hoc* committees called Panchayats that settled disputes about land. All subjects of the King irrespective of their status had to make prompt payment of their debts and the Zamoriin showed no mercy to debtors.[2] He allowed the English East India Company to arrest even Dharmoth Panikkar, the Raja of Punnathoor and Ambadi Kovilakam Valia Tampuratti for failure to clear their debts. The administration of criminal justice was simple, but primitive. Offences against morality and religion were punished by caste tribunals. Namboothiri women who were accused of immorality were tried before a caste tribunal consisting of a *Smarta* learned in *Smritis*, two *Meemamsakas* well-versed in the caste-law, the *Aka-koyma* or the local head of the community, and the *Pura-Koyma*, the representative of the ruling power. The trial was known as *Smartha Vicharam*. Adultery was punished by ex-communication and banishment of all the parties concerned. Offences against property were punished mostly by fine. Those who were found guilty of such heinous crimes as murder, slaughter of cows, assault on the king, Brahmins and Nairs, robbery, treason, etc., were liable to death penalty. For less serious crimes mutilation was a very common punishment. Minor offences such as petty thefts were punished with whipping. Trial by ordeal also prevailed both in civil and criminal cases. The most common form of trial was *Viralmukku* (finger dipping) or ordeal by fire in which the accused had to pick a coin out of a vessel containing boiling oil or ghee to establish his innocence.[3] The *dhata* or ordeal by

1. Quoted in *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, p. 235.
2. According to a curious custom which was prevalent at this time a creditor could arrest a debtor or seize his property without the intervention of any tribunal. He had only to draw a circle round the debtor and swear by his God and his king that the latter should not move out of the circle without paying his debt or otherwise satisfying his claims. If the debtor moved out of the circle without satisfying the claims, he became an outlaw and anyone was at liberty to kill him.
3. Sri K. V. Krishna Iyer informs me that among the records of Sri Valayanad Temple in Calicut appear four instances of '*viralmukku*'. One *nazhi* of ghee was used for the purpose. Besides the parties and their friends were present the Zamorin's representative, temple officials and 4 representatives of the *Nagaram* (Calicut bazaar, including Chettis and Muslims), each representative getting one *fanam* as his solatium. The crimes for which the suspects were put to

balance was also employed. It consisted of the accused being weighed in balance before some temple, and after a bath, reweighed with wet clothes on. If he was found to weigh less the second time, he was declared innocent.[1]

It may also be noted that in regard to punishment the law was not equalitarian. It varied according to the caste and status of the culprit. Brahmins and noblemen were never punished with imprisonment or whipping even for grave crimes. Nor were they awarded capital punishment. But if any person of low caste committed any crime or theft, he was often sentenced to death. The recognised form of execution was by impalement on the *Kazhu* or the high sharp stake described by Barbosa.[2] The administration of justice was, however, free as no fee was levied from suitors. Contemporary accounts prove that crimes were rare and people enjoyed security of life and property to a remarkable extent. Ludovico de Varthema, the Italian, and Pyrard de Lavel, the Frenchman, who visited Calicut early in the 16th and 17th centuries respectively both praise the administration of justice and the probity of the merchants.

Social Life.

Kerala society during this period was dominated by ideas of religion and caste. The Caste Hindus like the Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Nairs etc., had a privileged status. They were enjoined to observe the caste rules and restrictions strictly. Those who violated these rules were excommunicated and sold as slaves to Christians or Muslims under orders from the sovereign. Sometimes even the relatives of such offenders took action against them by murdering them secretly.

The writings of foreigners like Barbosa throw interesting light on some of the peculiar customs, manners, and institutions of the people of the age, particularly of the Namboothiris and the Nairs. The Namboothiri Brahmins enjoyed a position of supremacy in the social heirarchy. Only the eldest sons of Namboothiri families married from their own caste, while

the ordeal were two thefts of the Eralpad's jewels, the murder of a Mappila woman at Tamarasseri, and practice of black magic against a woman. All the suspects were Nairs. It may be noted here that in Suchindram where too the ordeal of boiling ghee was prevalent the Brahmins alone could claim the right to be put to this ordeal.

1 This ordeal was resorted to at Calicut even as recently as 1880.

2 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, pp. 27-28.

"the brothers who remain bachelors sleep with the Nair women".[1] The Brahmins served the Kings in every manner except in arms. They alone prepared food for Kings. "They also serve as couriers to other countries with letter, money or merchandise, passing wherever they wish to go in safety and none does them any ill, even when the Kings are at war".[2] The Nairs by virtue of their association with the Namboothiris had a high status in society and they observed the rules of caste in all their rigidity. The evil custom of untouchability was observed by them. "They will not touch any one of low caste nor eat nor drink save in the house of a Nair."[3] But the Nairs could keep women belonging to the Velutheda (washerman) and Chaliya (Weaver) communities as concubines. Moreover when they went to the battlefield, the Nairs could also touch persons of low caste and eat and drink in their houses without fear of losing caste. The members of the lower castes had invariably to make way for Nairs and other high caste Hindus on the public roads. Failure on the part of the lower castes to do so even led to their being murdered with the connivance of persons in authority.[4] "They never speak to the NAYRES save from a far off, shouting so that they may hear them, and when they go along the roads they utter loud cries, that they may be let past, and whosoever hears them leaves the road, and stands in the wood till they have passed by; and if anyone, whether man or woman, touches them his kinsfolk slay him forthwith, and in vengeance therefore they slay POLEAS until they are weary without suffering any punishment. In certain months of the year they do their utmost to touch some NAYRE woman by night as secretly as they can, and this only for the sake of doing evil. They go by in order to get into the houses of the NAYRES to touch women, and during these months the women guard themselves carefully, and if they touch any woman, even though none have seen it, and there may be no witnesses, yet she declares it at once, crying out, and she will stay no longer in her house that her caste may not be destroyed; in general she flees to the house of some other low caste folk, and hides herself, that her kinsfolk may not slay her; and that thence she may help

1 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, p. 35.

2 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II. p. 37.

3 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, p. 39.

4 It may be noted that the position remained unchanged even towards the beginning of the 19th century when Buchanan undertook his Journey through Malabar (1800-1801) (Vide *Journey through Mysore, Canara and Malabar*, Vol. II, Buchanan,pp. 410-411.)

herself and be sold to foreigners, which is ofttimes done. And the manner of touching is this, even though no words are exchanged, they throw something at her, a stone or a stick, and if it touches her she is touched and ruined."[1]

The main occupation of the Nairs was fighting and they enjoyed the privilege of carrying arms. They received military training in the *Kalaries* from the age of seven. The wages received by a Nair for a day's fighting came to four *thiramams* (ie. 2|3 *fanam*). Some of the Nairs were also employed as accountants and clerks in the palace. They did not generally engage themselves in trade and commerce or in any occupation which involved manual labour. Such pursuits were considered by them as lacking in dignity and respectability. The economic condition of the Nairs was hardly satisfactory. Their houses were thatched with cadjan leaves as they did not enjoy the privilege of roofing their houses with tiles. Fidelity to their employer was a prominent trait of the character of the Nairs. The Portuguese took full advantage of this and employed Nairs as *Changadams* (Suicide squads). It was the duty of the *Changadam* to defend with his life any person or property entrusted to him and this duty the Nairs discharged most faithfully.[2] The killing of a *Changadam* or Nair except in a regular battle or duel involved the aggressors in a *'Kudipaka'* or blood fued with the relatives of the victim which could be made up only after blood vengeance was taken. To keep open the martial spirit of the Nairs it was also customary to hold fencing matches and sham combats. Several hundred men attacked an equal number with sword and shield and inflicted wounds which were sometimes even fatal. These combats were generally held at the time of the Onam festival. The drinking habit had not come into vogue among the Nairs during this period. "They drink no wine, they do not sleep with women of low caste, all this is forbidden under pain of death."[3]

1 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, pp. 59-60. The reference here is to the primitive custom known as *Pulappedi*. It may be mentioned in this connection that traveller's tales should be taken with a pinch of salt. Life was not perhaps as depressed as sometimes pictured. Occasional happenings are often coloured and exaggerated.

2 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, p. 48.

3 It may be noted in this connection that the position was very different at the time of Buchanan's visit in 1800-1801 when the Nairs were addicted to intoxication (Vide *Journey through Mysore, South Canara and Malabar*, Vol. II, p. 417.)

The Nairs had their own peculiar customs. The *Talikettu Kalyanam* was common among them; Barbosa says it was held when the girl was 12 years old. Polyandry was also practised by Nairs. "The more lovers a woman has the greater is her honour."[1] Sheik Zainuddin writing about the middle and latter half of the 16th century also noticed the Nair custom of marriage as one which distinguished them from other races. He says that each woman had two or four men who cohabited with her, and that the men seldom quarrelled, the woman distributing her time among her husbands just as a Muhammadan distributes his time among his women. The *Marumakkathayam* system of inheritance was in vouge among the Nairs. "These men are not married, their nephews (sister's sons) are their heirs."[2] Barbosa also says that according to tradition *Marumakkathayam* was introduced by an ancient ruler to absolve the Nairs from the responsibility of rearing up children and to ensure their undivided loyalty to the ruler.[3] The Ravari Nairs (merchants) of Kurumbranad, however, followed the Makkathayam system in those days, though they are now *Marumakkathayis*.

In addition to the Nairs there were also other Hindu castes and communities like the Thiyyas, the Chaliyas, the Pulayas, Kusavas, Parayas etc. But these castes and communities occupied only a low status in society and were subjected to all kinds of disabilities. But Barbosa has recorded that some of the Thiyyas received military training. However, most of them were slaves of Nairs.[4] Among the non-Hindu communities the Mappilas held a prominent place in society. They were engaged mainly in trade and commerce. They constituted about one-fifth of the population of Malabar during this period. Some of the Mappilas were *Makkathayis* and others *Marumakkathayis*.[5] But some others followed a mixed system of giving half of their property to sons and the other half to nephews. "These follow the Heathen custom in many ways; their sons inherit half their property, and their nephews (sisters' son) take the other half. They belong to the sect of Mafamede, their holy day is Friday. Throughout this land they have a great number of mosques. They marry as many wives as they can support and keep as well many heathen

1 *Book of Duarte Barbosa,* Vol. II, p. 42.
2 *Book of Duarte Barbosa,* Vol. II, p. 40.
3 *Book of Duarte Barbosa,* Vol. II, p. 45.
4 *Book of Duarte Barbosa,* Vol. II, p. 60.
5 *Book of Duarte Barbosa,* Vol. II, p. 74.

concubines of low caste. If they have sons or daughters by these they make them Moors, and ofttimes the mother as well, and thus this evil generation continues to increase in Malabar; the people of the country call them Mapuleres."[1]

Economic Life.

The economic prosperity of the Zamorin's Kingdom was mainly due to its sea-borne commerce. In addition to the premier port of Calicut there were also others like Puthupattanam, Pantalayini Kollam, Trikkodi, Tanur, and Chaliyam, which played an important part in fostering trade and commerce. Nevertheless, Calicut overshadowed all these ports in its political and commercial importance. It was a cosmopolitan town where members of different religions and nationalities met for purposes of trade. Its inns and public houses provided accommodation to many a foreigner. The town abounded in temples, mosques, and churches. Indeed one of the striking peculiarities of the life of Calicut under the Zamorins was the complete absence of religious and communal rancour. It is worth recalling in this connection that when Pyrard De Laval visited Calicut as late as 1607 he found it "the busiest and most full of all traffic and commerce in the whole of India. It has merchants from all parts of the world and of all nations and religions, by reason of the liberty and security accorded to them there, for the king permits the exercise of every religion, and yet it is strictly forbidden to talk, dispute or quarrel on the subject."[2]

The trade of Calicut was mainly in the hands of the Muslims, Arab as well as native. The Arabs were essentially wholesale dealers in export and import trade in all kinds of goods, and their ships laden with merchandise carried on vigorous trade with the Muslim countries. However at the time of Barbosa's visit to Calicut several of them had left the place owing to Portuguese opposition. Referring to their trade activities Barbosa writes: "They sail everywhere with goods of many kinds and have in the town itself a Moorish Governor of their own who rules and punishes them without interference from the King, save that the Governor gives an account of certain matters to the King. In the days of their prosperity in trade and navigation they built in the city keeled

1 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, p. 74.

2 Quoted in *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon p. 235.

ships of a thousand and a thousand and two hundred BAHARES burden. These ships were built without any nails, but the whole of the sheathing was sewn with tread, and all upper works differed much from the fashion of ours, they had no decks. Here they took on board goods for every place, and every monsoon ten or fifteen of these ships sailed for the Red Sea, Aden and Meca, where they sold their goods at a profit, some to the Merchants of Juda, who took them on thence in small vessels to Toro, and from Toro they would go to Cairo, and from Cairo to Alexandria, and thence to Venice, whence they came to our regions. These goods were pepper (great store), ginger, cinnamon, cardamom, myrobalans, tamarinds, canafistula, precious stones of every kind, seed pearls, musk, ambergris, rhubarb, aloes-wood, great store of cotton clothes, porcelaine, and some of them took on at Juda copper, quicksilver, vermilion, coral, saffron, coloured velvets, rosewater, knives, coloured camlets, gold, silver, and many other things which they brought back for sale at Calicut. They started in February, and returned from the middle of August up to the middle of October of the same year. In this trade they became extremely wealthy. And on their return voyages they would bring with them other foreign merchants who settled in the city, beginning to build ships and to trade, on which the King received heavy duties. As soon as any of these Merchants reached the city, the King assigned him a Nayre, to protect and serve him, and a CHATIM clerk to keep his accounts and look after his affairs, and a broker to arrange for him to obtain such goods as he had need of for which three persons they paid good salaries every month."[1]

We may also refer in this connection to the role of the native trading classes like the Mappilas, the Chettis, the Gujarathis and the Vyavari (Ravari) Nairs in promoting the trade of Calicut. The role of the Mappilas or native Muslims was primarily that of middlemen between foreign Muslims and the native manufacturers and growers. As they were not wealthy enough, they borrowed large sums of money from the rich Arab merchants for carrying on their business. But the profits that they earned from their transactions were extremely meagre. Moreover, the attitude of the foreign Muslims towards them was arrogant and overbearing. Consequently there was clash of interests between them and the foreign Muslims of

1 *Book of Duarte Barbosa*, Vol. II, p. 77.

Cairo and Ormuz.[1] The Portuguese who were the inveterate enemies of the Arabs tried to play the one against the other by giving better price for the commodities they purchased from the native Muslims than they ever paid for what they got from the Cairo merchants. The Chettis dealt in precious stones, pearls, and other valuable goods and the Gujarathis in goods of all kinds and acted as commission agents and brokers. The Vyavari Nairs brought all the pepper and ginger from the cultivators in exchange for other goods.

The cultivation of rice, pepper and coconut was the chief occupation of the people. Most of the fruits and vegetables which are known to us to day were also cultivated. Coconut was largely cultivated, coconut and coconut-oil being among the chief articles of trade. But the most important article of cultivation as well as of export was pepper. Writing even as early as the 14th century, Ibn Batuta observed as follows: "Their country is that from which black pepper is brought; and this is the far greater part of their produce and culture. The pepper tree resembles that of the dark grape. They plant it near that of the coconut, and make frame-work for it, just as they do for the grape tree. It has, however, no tendrils, and the tree itself resembles the leaves of a bramble. When the autumn arrives, it is ripe; then they cut it, and spread it just as they do grapes, and thus it is dried by the sun."[2] The trade in pepper continued with undiminished importance in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Tunchathu Ezhuthachan and cultural revival

The 16th and 17th centuries also constituted a period of general cultural revival in Kerala history. The Kozhikode District made its notable contributions to this cultural revival. It produced in the 16th century Tunchathu Ezhuthachan, who is the greatest figure in the annals of Malayalam literature. Ezhuthachan was a typical product of his times. He was not merely a bright luminary that shone in the literary firmament of Kerala, but he was also the pioneer and messiah of the new movement of cultural revival.

In order to understand fully the significance of the life and work of Tunchathu Ezhuthachan, it is necessary to emphasise again at this stage the shortcomings in the political and

1 *Portuguese Pirates and Indian Seamen*, O. K. Nambiar, p. 38.
2 *The Travels of Ibn Batuta*, Rev. Samuel Lee, p. 168.

social organisation of medieval Kerala.[1] As already stated, politically medieval Kerala presented the picture of a weak feudal polity. In the absence of a strong central power, the country was split up into a number of small principalities at loggerheads with one another. The Portuguese followed during this period a policy of intrigue and violence in their attempt to secure for themselves the monopoly of the pepper trade of Malabar. They sought to buy off the native rulers and their officers by presents and gifts. This policy of the Portuguese had a demoralising effect on the people at large. The introduction of the gun and other new weapons of warfare by the Portuguese also baffled the local population. Moreover, the period witnessed an economic depression as a consequence of the fall in the price of pepper. Above all, there was the moral degradation of the people as evidenced by the growth of the *Devadasi* system and the *Jenmi* system with their attendant evils. The common people became tired of such a state of affairs. There was a craving everywhere for peace and renewed confidence in life. The times were ripe for the emergence of a new leader with a new message for suffering humanity. It was at this juncture that the genius of Tunchathu Ramanujan Ezhuthachan appeared on the scene with his emphasis on the doctrine of *Bhakti* as the supreme means of salvation. In his literary works he preached to the people the need for absolute and self-less surrender to God in the form of Vishnu. "In the case of the warlike Nairs of Malabar it was only a case of transferring their devotion from the war-god to the God Vishnu. Besides, the human mind in a state of exhaustion will easily accept a single concrete idea which the doctrine of *Bhakti* embodies, and has no patience with metaphysical speculations. The message of *Bhakti* which inspired every line of poetry that emanated from Ezhuthachan like an irresistible stream possessed an inherent sanctity from his own personality, as he himself was a perfect example of the precepts he preached. His preference for and insistence on *Bhakti* as the short-cut to salvation seems therefore the outcome of a premeditated attempt suggested by the political and social decadence of the society of his time, and was intended as an effective

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1 Attention is invited to Chapter VI (pp. 72-84) in *Sahitya Charitra Samgraham* by Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, wherein the historical background of the *Bhakti* movement in Kerala has been dealt with in detail.

step for the spiritual and cultural redemption of his people, which he willingly undertook as his life mission."[1]

It will be only relevant in this connection to sketch briefly the life and work of Tunchathu Ezhuthachan with special emphasis on his contributions to Malayalam language and literature. Ezhuthachan was born in a poor low caste Nair family called Tunchathu at Trikkandiyur, about a mile away from the Tirur Railway Station.[2] Even as a child he exhibited uncommon intelligence which excited the jealousy of the local Namboothiri Brahmins. He received his early education in the traditional way and acquired a mastery of Sanskrit and Dravidian languages. He travelled extensively in other parts of South India and enriched his stock of knowledge. Having returned home he settled down as a teacher, giving free instruction to his pupils and pursuing his literary activities. Ezhuthachan's genius soon won universal recognition and even Namboothiri scholars of the age like Melpathoor Bhattathiri sought his friendship.

Ezhuthachan's contributions to Malayalam literature are indeed memorable. In his hands the *Kilipattu* as a form of literary composition attained perfection[3]. Of the *Kilipattus* of Ezhuthachan the *Adhyatma Ramayanam* and *Mahabharatham* are the best known. The former is decidedly the most popular peom in the Malayalam language. Although a translation it is noted for its originality of treatment. It occupies as high a place in literature as it does in the religious life of the Malayalee Hindus and has won for its author the same place in Malayalam as is held by Kamban in Tamil and Tulasidas in Hindi. In epitomising Vyasa's *Mahabharata* Ezhuthachan showed a judicious sense of selection and rejection. The language used by the poet was generally simple and lucid and served as a model for later poets. Among the minor works of Ezhuthachan may be mentioned the *'Harinamakeerthanam'*.

1 *Ezhuthachan and his Age*, Dr. Chelanat Achyuta Menon, pp. 71-72.

2 The sand from the compound where the house of Ezhuthachan once stood is even today taken by people to be used when children are initiated in letters. It is a traditional custom in Kerala to make children write first on the sand with the first finger on the occasion of the "*Vidyarambham*" and it is believed by people that children will learn quicker if they are made to write on the sand from "*Tunchan Parambu*"—the compound where the house of Ezhuthachan stood.

3 *Kilipattu* has obtained its name from the poetic fiction that the verses are primarily sung by the *Kili* or parrot, the pet bird of Goddess Saraswathi.

Ezhuthachan's memory is enshrined in the hearts of all classes of people in Kerala even today. With him is associated the beginning of the system of village education which prevailed in Kerala for years and which lingers even today in some remote corners. Till his time facilities for learning Sanskrit language and literature were not available to the common man as Brahmins monopolised all Sanskrit education and the services of Brahmin teachers could be procured only by the gentry and the privileged few who had access to them. With Ezhuthachan the education of the masses was the ideal and consequently he undertook to impart knowledge freely to his fellowmen irrespective of all considerations of wealth and status. A new school in literature, art and philosophy with *Bhakti* as the cardinal principle also came into being under his guidance. His verses are recited throughout the country even to day as authoritative pronouncements on the moral principles which govern society. But his lasting title to greatness lies in the fact that he is the Father of Modern Malayalam Language. Till his day Malayalam was regarded by Sanskrit scholars as an undeveloped, undignified, and inferior language deserving of no recognition. But it was the works of Tunchathu Ezhuthachan that invested Malayalam with an importance of its own and compelled even Sanskrit scholars to recognise and admire its excellence.

Progress of literature in the 16th and 17th centuries.

In addition to Tunchathu Ramanujan Ezhuthachan the 16th and 17th centuries produced several other scholars and men of letters. Karunakaran Ezhuthachan and Suryanarayanan Ezhuthachan, the disciples of Ramanujan Ezhuthachan, continued the work of their master in the literary field. The most notable literary men of the period were, however, Melpathoor Narayana Bhattathiri and Poontanam Namboothiri. Both Melpathoor and Poontanam were great *Bhaktas* (devotees) and the contributions made by them to devotional literature in Sanskrit and Malayalam respectively can hardly be overestimated. The former is the celebrated author of the *Narayaneeyam* while the latter wrote such famous works as *Santhanagopalam* and *Jnanapana*[1]. Though born outside the District, both these scholars lived for long at Calicut enjoying the patronage of the Zamorin. Mention may also be made in

1 The details of the contributions made by Melpathoor and Poontanam have been given in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, pp. 148-150.

this connection of Trikkandiyur Achutha Pisharoti, the great non-Brahmin scholar at whose feet Narayana Bhattathiri learnt Vyakarana. He wrote the grammatical work *Pravesaka* besides several works on astronomy such as *Uparagakriyakarma*, *Karanottama*, and *Sphutanirnaya*. Pisharoti has been assigned to the period 1550-1621.[1]

The Zamorin's family also produced during this period several great scholars who made their original contributions to literature. Manaveda, (1655-1658), the author of the *Krishna Giti* and *Purvabharata Champu*, is the most important Zamorin of the period who made his contribution to literature. Himself a great scholar and poet Manaveda was also a generous patron of letters and learning. He was a fervent devotee of Vishnu and is said to have spent a large part of his time at the Guruvayur temple in the company of Melpathoor. Manaveda was a scholar in *Nataka*, *Tarka*, *Kavya* and *Vykarana*. His *Purvabharatachampu*, composed in 1643 A.D., describes the early history of the lunar dynasty and is full of rare and subtle grammatical usages. The *Krishna Giti*, which describes the story of Krishna in 8 cantos, was composed by him on the model of Jayadeva's *Gita Govinda*, and it contains verses as well as musical portions. It was intended for the performance of *Krishnan Attam*. It may be noted in this connection that *Kathakali*, the great art of Kerala, is modelled on the *Krishnan Attam*[2].

Manaveda also caused the *Manameyodaya* left unfinished by Melpathoor to be completed by the famous *Meemamsa* scholar Narayana Panditha, the most important of the scholars patronised by him. Apart from completing the *Manameyodaya*, Narayana Panditha wrote a commentary on the *Raghuvamsa* and the *Kumarasambhava*. Another notable scholar of the period was Rudradasa of the Desamangalam Warrier family.[3] He enjoyed the patronage of the Zamorin.

1 *Contribution of Kerala to Sanskrit Literature*, Dr. K. K. Raja, p. 125.

2 It is said that the Zamorin had once a vision of Krishna through the blessing of the great ascetic Vilwamangalam Swamiyar. In commemoration of that incident he conceived the idea of staging the divine life of Krishna, and wrote the *Krishna Giti* for the purpose. Each of the eight cantos of the work is designed for a night's performance.

3 The Warriers of the Desamangalam family were the hereditary tutors of the Zamorins. Rudradasa belonged to this family. His real name was Uzhuthura Warrier.

Rudradasa wrote the *Chandralekha Sattaka* or *Manaveda Charita.*[1] *The Chandralekha* is a Prakrit drama which deals in four Acts with the story of the love between Manaveda, the King of Calicut, and *Chandralekha*, the daughter of the King of Angas. It is written after the model of Rajasekhara's *Karpuramanjari*. In the study of the *Sattaka* type of dramas as well as of Prakrit language Rudradasa's *Chandralekha* is of much value.[2] Srikantha, the author of the *Raghudaya*, was another member of the Desamangalam family of Warriers who flourished under the patronage of a Zamorin of Calicut. The *Raghudaya* describes the story of Rama in 8 cantos and is modelled on the *Yudhishtira Vijaya* of Vasudeva Bhattathiri. A commentary on the *Raghudaya* has been written by Rudramisra who was a disciple of Srikantha.

Another brilliant poet who flourished in the age of the later Zamorins was Divakara, the author of "*Laskhmimanaveda*", a drama which describes in five Acts the story of the marriage of Rajalakshmi with Manaveda, the Zamorin of Calicut. Divakara seems to have been an East Coast Brahmin and he was to Manaveda what Uddanda Sastrikal was to Manavikrama.

An important literary work of the period is the "*Mamamkodharanam*", written in *Kilipattu* style by Katancherry Namboothiri. It is popularly known as *Mamamkom Kilipattu.* In this poem we get a detailed account of the two Mamamkoms of 1694 and 1695 celebrated by Bharani Thirunal Manavikrama (1684-1705), one of the greatest of the Zamorins of Calicut. It is from *Mamamkom Kilipattu* that we get full knowledge of the various festivities and pastimes connected with the Mamamkom festival which played a very important part in the history of Kerala for centuries.

MODERN PERIOD

Rise of the English

We have already seen that the Portuguese and the Dutch were not destined to be masters of Kerala and that the future of the land lay with the English. In 1615 Captain Keeling arrived off Calicut with the 3 English ships which brought

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1 According to K. V. Krishna Iyer, Rudradasa who wrote the *Chandralekha Sattaka* also wrote the *Bhakthapriya*, the famous commentary on Melpathoor's *Narayaneeyam*.

2 *Sattaka* is one of the eighteen minor Dramas (*Uparupakas*). The language should be Prakrit and not Sanskrit (See Viswanatha's definition in his *Sahitya Darpana*).

Sir Thomas Roe on his embassy to the court of Jahangir and he concluded a treaty with the Zamorin. According to this treaty the English were to assist the Zamorin in expelling the Portuguese from Cranganore and Cochin, and they were in return to have complete freedom of trade in his dominions. As the English were pre-occupied with affairs in the Eastern Archipelago, they did not help the Zamorin against the Portuguese in accordance with the terms of this treaty. The English ships left the coast leaving ten men to open a ware-house at Ponnani and Calicut. But the English had to face stiff competition in Malabar from foreign powers viz. the Portuguese, the Dutch and the French. In 1634-35 when the Portuguese power in Kerala was on the verge of ruin the English East India Company entered into a treaty with the Portuguese by which the English got free access to all the Portuguese ports in Kerala. Consequent to it, some Englishmen settled at Cochin and in 1636 pepper was for the first time exported to England direct from Malabar. When the Dutch captured Cochin in 1663 the English factors in the town received immediate orders to quit the place and they retired to Ponnani. A year later a small English factory was opened at Calicut and here living as ordinary merchants under the protection of the Zamorin, the English laid the foundations of their future influence. The Zamorin who was never in favour of foreign settlements offered concessions to the English at Calicut only because he was smarting under the treacherous conduct of the Dutch and was anxious to give them offence, but he was not inclined to grant further sites to the English in his dominions. The English Company, therefore, sought other sites on the Kerala Coast from where they could trade in greater security. In 1684 they obtained from the Rani of Attingal a site for a factory at Anjengo and in 1690 permission to build a fort there. Some time before 1699 an English factory was founded at Tellicherry.[1] In 1699 the Zamorin came to an understanding with the English factory at Calicut authorising them to deduct 25% of the duty on pepper exported.[2] In 1710 he also authorised them to employ the oil ordeal for settling their disputes with native traders.[3]

1. Tellicherry was in the Kingdom of the Kolathiri Raja. It was the Vadakkalamkur (Northern Regent) of Kolathiri who permitted the English Company to settle at Tellicherry.
2. Logan's *Treaties*, p. 2.
3. Logan's *Treaties*, p. 3.

Rivalry with the French

For long it was the policy of the English Company not to get involved in military enterprises. The English were interested mainly in fostering trade. Nevertheless occasionally they interfered in native politics to their advantage. In North Malabar as elsewhere in India the English had to face serious competition from the French. In 1725 a small French squadron under the command of M. De Pardaillan acting under the orders of the French Governor of Pondicherry, appeared off Mayyazhi (Mahe), four miles south of Tellicherry, and summoned the town to surrender. The native Governor of the place refused to comply. "On high ground rising up from the sea, and washed on the northern side by a little river, the entrance to which was closed by rocks even for the smallest boats, Mahe seemed to be able to bid defiance to any enemy who should attack it on the side of the sea"[1]. One of the French captains Bertrand Francois Mahe De Labourdonnais devised an ingenious plan of his own for the capture of Mayyazhi. Under cover of the guns of the squadron the French troops were landed by a raft dry-shod and the town was stormed without any difficulty. In honour of the memorable part played by Mahe De Labourdonnais in the capture of Mayyazhi the settlement was renamed Mahe. The French and the English were now face to face with each other in North Malabar and they began to intrigue for the support of the native princes in their struggle for political and commercial supremacy. It was the French who made the first move. The Kurangot Nair, one of the chieftains of Iruvazhinaud, had always resented the intrusion of the English into his domains at Tellicherry, and he eagerly welcomed French alliance to retrieve the lost ground. An attempt was made by the French with his alliance to seize two of the outlying hills of Tellicherry. The English repulsed the attack and supplied the Kadattanat Raja with money to carry on the war for the recovery of Mahe. Eventually under orders from the respective Governments the two factories agreed in 1728 to live in peace side by side and to co-operate with each other in keeping down the price of pepper.[2]

1. Malleson, *History of the French in India,* p. 62.

2. A detailed account of the Anglo-French conflict in North Kerala falls within the scope of the *Cannanore District Gazetteer.*

Zamorin's Campaigns in Cochin territory

In spite of the agreement of 1728 the English factors at Tellicherry and the French factors at Mahe continued to engage themselves in hostilities for some more decades to come. It is not necessary to go into the details of these hostilities as the subject falls outside the scope of this Gazetteer. It may however be stated that the French in North Kerala became gradually exhausted by this conflict while the English were benefited considerably. At the time when the French and the English were engaged in the struggle in North Kerala significant changes had taken place in Central Kerala. The Raja of Cochin deserted by his Dutch allies in 1753 soon found himself between the hammer of the Zamorin and the anvil of Travancore. In 1755-56 the Zamorin attacked Chettuvai and other Dutch outposts, rapidly possessed himself of Cranganore, Parur and Verapoly and consolidated his rule over the area bordering on Travancore. At the same time the Travancore Raja advanced from the south and rapidly overran Thekkumkur, Vadakkumkur, Purakkad and other places whose rulers were the allies of Cochin. The allied forces were completely routed by the Travancore army at Purakkad. In despair the Cochin Raja turned to Travancore for assistance and on the 22nd and 23rd December 1761 articles of alliance were exchanged between the two Rajas providing for the expulsion of the Zamorin and for the cession of further territory to Travancore. The first act of the Travancore Raja was to construct the famous Travancore Lines, 30 miles long, from the shores of the backwater opposite Cranganore to the foot of the Ghats. With his right flank guarded by these lines the Travancore General, De Lannoy, marched his troops in three divisions against the Zamorin's forces and forced them to evacuate Cochin territory. Negotiations for peace were opened. The Zamorin himself went to Padmanabhapuram and concluded a treaty with the Travancore ruler in 1763 according to which he agreed to pay Rs. 60,000 as war indemnity and to refer all his disputes with Cochin to the mediation of Travancore. In taking this step the Zamorin's aim was to patch up his quarrel with the Travancore ruler in the face of the new threat from Mysore under Haider Ali.

Zamorin's invasion of Palghat

The Zamorin's aggressions were not confined to Cochin. In 1756-57 he drove a wedge into the dominions of the Palghat

Raja by capturing the tract named Naduvattam, now a part of the Palghat Taluk. The conquest of the whole of Palghat was now only a matter of time. In this emergency the Palghat Raja placed himself under the protection of the king of Mysore agreeing to pay an annual tribute of 12,000 fanams. The king of Mysore ordered Haider Ali, who was then the Faujdar of Dindigul, to proceed to the assistance of the Palghat Raja. Haider Ali sent his brother-in-law Mukhdum Sahib with a force of 2,000 cavalry, 5,000 infantry and 5 guns, to assist him and this force aided by the Palghat Nairs carried their arms right up to the sea coast. The Calicut forces retreated and the Zamorin bought off his opponents by agreeing to restore his Palghat conquests and promising to pay in instalments a war indemnity of 12 lakhs of Rupees.

Haider's Invasion of Calicut (1766)

As soon as Haider became the master of Mysore (June 1761) he demanded of the Zamorin to pay the war indemnity of Rs. 12 lakhs due to Mysore by the treaty of 1756-1757. The Zamorin was not in a position to comply with the demand as his treasury was empty. Haider thereupon decided to invade Calicut, and at the head of an army of 12,000 picked troops, including 4,000 cavalry and 4 guns, he started for Malabar in 1766. A powerful fleet also accompanied Haider along the coast. He was helped in his campaigns in North Malabar by his co-religionist the Ali Raja of Cannanore and the local Mappila population. Advancing by way of Chirakkal Haider swept through the country as far as Calicut without encountering any serious resistance. He had issued special instructions to his army to grant no quarter and the inhabitants fled at the approach of the Mysoreans. The Zamorin's Nairs proceeded in strength to the Kotta River and attempted to oppose Haider at the Perimkulam ferry. In a decisive engagement Haider defeated them and forced his passage through the river. He moved south after securing his communications by a cordon of block-houses, and eventually entered Kurumbranad on his way to Calicut.[1] At this critical juncture the Zamorin met Haider in person at Kurumbranad in an attempt

1. The block-houses were military stations set up by Haider at important points in the conquered territory. Small bodies of troops were stationed in them and they helped him to keep the conquered population under check, and thus secure his communications during his campaigns in Malabar.

to arrange peace. He offered all his treasure and property to Haider but the latter demanded from the Zamorin the extraordinarily large sum of a crore of gold MOHURS. The Zamorin protested his inability to comply with this extravagant demand and returned to Calicut closely pursued by his enemy. His troops made futile attempts to stop the advance of Haider. On 20th April Haider Ali entered the town of Calicut and encamped himself at Palayam. Thereafter, the siege of Calicut took a more decisive turn. The Zamorin was practically confined in his palace while his men made heroic efforts to raise the siege. When the provisions ran short and the situation became desperate the Zamorin sent the members of his family to Ponnani. Fearing indignities the Zamorin decided to blow up his palace and put an end to his own life. On the 27th April, 1766 he carried out his resolution by setting fire to the powder magazine with his own hand and blowing himself up along with the fortress.

Haider's demands on Cochin and Travancore

Haider was now by right of conquest the master of the ancient territories of the Zamorin. His next aim was to conquer Cochin and Travancore and enlarge the sphere of his influence in Kerala. With his headquarters at Calicut Haider engaged himself in vigorous diplomatic activity. At Calicut the Dutch commissioners met him at his request and discussed the terms on which they would be prepared to enter into an offensive and defensive alliance with him, but this conference did not produce any concrete result. The Dutch Company on the other hand requested Haider to give up his contemplated invasion of Travancore and Cochin. Haider promised to do so on condition that the rulers of the two States accepted his suzerainty and paid him tribute. Cochin readily agreed to Haider's terms and purchased immunity from attack by undertaking to pay a subsidy of two lakhs of rupees and eight elephants. But Dharma Raja (1758-1798), who was the ruler of Travancore at this time, refused to be cowed down. He declined to become tributary to Haider on the ground that he was already under the protection of the English East India Company through the Nawab of Arcot. The Raja was however ready to pay a contribution to Haider if the Zamorin and Kolathiri were reinstated.[1] He also took prompt steps

1. In his demand for the reinstatement of the Zamorin and the Kolathiri to their respective thrones the Travancore ruler was

to ward off a possible Mysorean invasion of his kingdom by strengthening the Travancore lines. In the meantime, as the monsoon was fast approaching, Haider retired to Coimbatore leaving behind him a movable column of 3,000 regular troops aided by Ali Raja and his Mappilas at Calicut. A Brahmin by name Madanna who was an experienced revenue officer in the service of Haider was appointed as Civil Governor of the new province.

Rebellion in Malabar

Haider's departure was the signal for a widespread insurrection in Kerala. Kottayam and Kadattanad rose in revolt in the north while the Mysorean forts at Ponnani and Calicut were closely besieged. The news of the uprising reached Haider's lieutenant Raza Khan, who had set up headquarters at Madukkarai on the frontier of Coimbatore with 3,000 men. Raza Sahib marched at once with his infantry alone in spite of the inclement weather and of the inundated state of the country. Handicapped by lack of cavalry and harassed at every river-crossing by the Nairs, Raza Khan's small force failed to make any appreciable headway. Haider heard at Coimbatore of his lieutenant's difficulties and made a characteristically bold dash for Kerala with a view to bringing relief to his men. With his soldiers stripped almost naked, and his cavalry riding bare-backed, Haider advanced rapidly devastating the country-side as he went and overtook the Nairs in a strongly entrenched position at Putiangadi. The first attack failed, but the valour of a body of European troops, mostly French, fighting under Mysore banner turned an impending defeat into victory and the Nairs were utterly routed. Organised resistance was now at an end and Haider proceeded to pacify Malabar by making a desert of what was once a populous and prosperous land. With their headquarters at Manjeri Haider's troops carried fire and sword throughout the countryside. They set fire to houses, cut down fruit trees, and destroyed cattle, and the unhappy inhabitants took refuge in the inhospitable hills and jungles. The Nairs were the object of Haider's special fury. Haider followed a policy of all-round repression in order to crush their spirit of resistance. Before he left the country, he issued a solemn edict

supported by the Raja of Cochin. The reason for this united demand was that the idea that a sovereign could be dispossessed of his kingdom was alien to Kerala polity.

depriving them of all their time-honoured privileges. They were mercilessly hunted down and sent to the gallows. Their wives and children were sold as slaves and they were declared to be the lowest of all the castes. It was also made obligatory on the part of the Nairs to salute the Parayas who formed the lowest caste. While all other castes were permitted to carry arms, the Nairs who had till then enjoyed the sole right in this regard were completely disarmed. The Edict even commanded all persons to kill such Nairs who were seen carrying arms. As these measures did not ensure the complete submission of the Nairs Haider issued a new edict restoring the lost rights and privileges to those Nairs who embraced Islam. Many became converts to Islam in the wake of this ordinance but the vast majority chose to leave the land taking refuge in Travancore rather than submit to it. Haider also adopted other means of punishing the refractory Nairs. From their headquarters at Manjeri his troops spread out all over the country capturing men, women, and children. At first Haider beheaded or hanged them, but as their numbers increased, he conceived the plan of carrying them as slaves to other parts of his dominion. But very few of the thousands of captives deported from Malabar survived Haider's experiment.[1] These draconian measures of Haider no doubt produced an outward calm in the country, and thinking that he had successfully pacified the Malayalees Haider retired once more to Coimbatore with his cavalry.

Haider's withdrawal from Malabar

The calm which followed Haider's exit from the scene was not destined to last long. A force sent by him against Travancore for the purpose of securing the submission of its ruler suffered disastrous defeat. This incident provoked another general rising in Malabar early in 1767. In Kottayam a Mysorean force of 4,000 men was attacked and routed by half as many Nairs while in Calicut Madanna, the Civil Governor, and his garrison were closely besieged. Haider was facing a great crisis, but the situation was saved by the skilful diplomacy of Madanna. This Brahmin Officer of Haider entered into negotiations with the Nair Chiefs. He deluded them into the belief that Haider considered his possessions

1. According to Wilks out of 15,000 thus deported by Haider only 200 survived.

in Malabar a liability and that if only he were given monetary compensation he would restore the conquered territories to their former rulers. The local chieftains readily accepted the offer and Haider's army which was already facing a difficult situation and was on the verge of retreat now withdrew in safety and honour carrying an enormous treasure with them. The Zamorin also agreed to pay an annual tribute to Haider and returned to Calicut.

Haider's second attempt on Kerala

The years 1768-1773 were uneventful. Haider was during this period busy with his campaigns against the Marathas. In 1773 when his hands were free he decided to reconquer Kerala. At the end of the year a strong Mysore force under Sreenivasa Rao descended on Kerala by a new route through Wynad down the Tamarasseri pass. On receipt of the news of the impending invasion the Zamorin approached the French at Mahe for help against Haider and concluded a treaty with the Governor M. Duprat by which he "submitted himself his country and subjects to the King of France and obtained promises of protection against his enemies."[1] Immediately after this treaty Duprat landed at Calicut with a detachment of French troops and the Zamorin handed over to him the administration of his Kingdom. The French at once hoisted their flags everywhere and took formal possession of the Zamorin's fort at Calicut. Duprat informed Haider's General that he had taken the Zamorin under his protection on behalf of the king of France. The General, however, ignored this message and continued his march towards Calicut. Duprat who had hoped for the withdrawal of the Mysoreans was disillusioned and left Calicut in haste for Mahe on the very same vessel by which he had arrived. Sreenivasa Rao occupied Calicut and the French flags were contemptuously pulled down. Under these circumstances the Zamorin also left Calicut, and took refuge in the Kingdom of Travancore along with other members of his family. Haider again became the master of the Zamorin's Kingdom. Sreenivasa Rao was appointed as Foujdar or Military Governor of Malabar and he was to be assisted by Sirdar Khan. About a year later (1775) Haider Ali resolved upon open rupture with the English. He now thought that if only he could subjugate Travancore he would

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1. *The Dutch in Malabar*, Galletti, p. 156.

not only be able to replenish his coffers but would also secure an advantageous position on his enemy's flank for his contemplated invasion of the Carnatic. In 1775 he demanded of the Dutch at Cochin free passage to his troops through their territories to attack Travancore. On their failure to comply Haider sent Sirdar Khan at the head of about 10,000 men in August 1776. He invaded the northern portions of Cochin territory and took the fort of Trichur.[1] However, the Travancore lines stopped the further advance of the Mysore army. The next few years were wasted partly in skirmishes with the Dutch around Chettuvai and Cranganore and partly in fruitless negotiations with them for an alliance against Travancore.

The period from 1776 to 1778 was one of comparative peace in Kerala. But in 1778 rebellion broke out once again against the authority of the Mysore ruler. In that year war broke out between the English and the French following the recognition by France of American Independence. The rulers of Calicut, Kadattanad and Kottayam now entered into an alliance to throw off the yoke of Mysore. The English East India Company encouraged these rulers, because the French were in alliance with Haider and had sent a contingent to him through Mahe, their settlement on the West Coast. In March 1779 the English troops captured Mahe and the French position in North Malabar was weakened. Having won their immediate objective, the English East India Company reversed their policy and the Zamorin and other Kerala princes were left at the mercy of Haider. But soon war broke out between Haider and the English, and the Company was again forced to enter into negotiations with the Zamorin and other chiefs for a concerted action against Mysore. It may be mentioned in this connection that in spite of the absence of the Zamorin from the kingdom resistance to Haider was being kept up by Ravi Varma of the *Padinjare Kovilakam*.[2] This prince now

1. The details of Sirdar Khan's campaigns have been given in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, pp. 163-168.
2. The Zamorin's family is divided into three main branches, the Eastern (*Kizhakke*), the Western (*Padinjare*), and New (*Putiya*) palaces (*Kovilakams*). Each palace or *Kovilakam* has its own properties which are managed by the *Valia Tampuratti* or senior lady of the branch. The Senior lady and nominal head of the whole family has her own *Sthanam* known as the Ambadi *Kovilakam* to which a separate estate is attached. The five senior males have also their *Sthanams* and estates and are known in

joined the English and promised active help in capturing Calicut. In the meantime the Nairs rose all over the country in an attempt to overthrow the Mysore yoke. Under such favourable circumstances the English troops under Major Abington took Calicut on February 13, 1782. Palghat was now the only place of importance left in Haider's hands. A detachment of English troops assisted by Ravi Varma's Nairs advanced towards Palghat under the command of Col. Humberstone while the Mysore army under Makhdum Ali was proceeding northwards from there. The two forces met in a pitched battle at Tirurangadi on 8th April. Makhdum Ali lost his own life and a great part of his army in this battle. The Mysore forces rallied at Ramagiri Fort,[1] only to be routed once more. Meanwhile, the outbreak of the monsoon prevented Col. Humberstone from proceeding towards Palghat and he retired to Calicut. As soon as the monsoon was over he proceeded again against Palghat with a force greatly reduced by disease. This time Haider sent his son Tipu to restore his authority in Malabar. Before any decisive engagement took place Haider Ali died on 7th December, 1782, and Tipu was obliged to return in haste to Mysore to occupy his father's throne. Ravi Varma and the English were now free to go ahead with their campaign. On 15th November, 1783 an English force under Col. Fullerton captured Palghat and handed it over to the Zamorin. Fullerton then proceeded to Coimbatore with the object of proceeding from there, if possible to Mysore, but his plans misfired. The Zamorin soon abandoned Palghat and Tipu's forces reoccupied the fort. Tipu was able to reestablish his authority from Palghat to the Kotta river.

Tipu's Conquest of Calicut and the Founding of Feroke (1788)

By the Treaty of Mangalore (1784) which concluded the Second Mysore War, the English gave up their claims on Malabar and declared the rulers of Kerala to be the friends and allies of Tipu. This was a great victory for the Sultan, as it was a tacit recognition of his suzerainty over Malabar.

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order of dignity as the *Zamorin*, the *Eralpad*, the *Munalpad*, the *Edataralpad* and *Nadutaralpad*. The new and western branches have their chief palaces at Calicut and the eastern branch at Kottakkal in Ernad.

1. On the road from Cherpulasseri to Pattambi in Palghat District

Tipu was now free to shape his Kerala policy unhindered by English opposition. Whereas Haider after his conquest of Malabar had followed a cautious policy of conciliation, Tipu adopted a policy of "blood and iron". His officers in the occupied territory of Malabar freely oppressed the civilian population. Their unjust exactions drew even the Mappilas of Ernad into open rebellion under the leadership of the Kurukkal, a notable Mappila chief of Manjeri. Arshad Beg Khan "a Mussalman of rare talents, humanity and integrity" whom Haider had appointed as Governor of the province[1] found himself unequal to the task of quelling the disturbance that broke out. The position was so alarming that he invited Tipu to come to Kerala in person and restore his shattered prestige. Accordingly Tipu descended on Kerala at the head of a large army in January 1788 via the Tamarasseri pass and marched towards Calicut without encountering any resistance on the way. There he conceived the idea of attempting a radical reorganisation of the administrative set-up and social system of Kerala.

One of the earliest projects of the Sultan was the transfer of the capital of the province of Malabar from Calicut to a new site of his own. He selected the new site on the south bank of the Beypore River and built a strong fort at the modern village of Feroke. All the inhabitants of Calicut were also transferred to Feroke. The new town was connected with the other parts of the country through a net-work of roads. In the meantime the approach of the monsoon compelled Tipu to retire to Coimbatore and the people of Calicut took the earliest opportunity to return to their homes. The grandiose project of founding a new capital thus ended in failure.

Social innovations

Tipu now took in hand the re-organisation of the social system of Kerala which with its peculiar marriage customs and law of inheritance appeared to him quite primitive and

1. It was Arshad Beg who introduced a regular Land Revenue settlement in Malabar for the first time. He formed an estimate of the produce and imposed a tax on each tree. Thus on every coconut tree a tax of 1|2 a fanam was levied. Young and old trees were exempted from taxation. The system introduced by Arshad Beg improved cultivation in the country and the ravaged fields began to smile again.

uncivilised. With the fanatical zeal of a self-appointed missionary he introduced drastic innovations. In a proclamation issued to the people of Malabar in 1788 he outlined his new scheme of social reform as follows. "From the period of the conquest until this day, during twenty-four years, you have been a turbulent and refractory people, and in the wars waged during your rainy season, you have caused numbers of our warriors to taste the draught of martyrdom. Be it so. What is past is past. Hereafter you must proceed in an opposite manner, dwell quietly and pay your dues like good subjects: and since it is the practice with you for one woman to associate with ten men, and you leave your mothers and sisters unconstrained in their obscene practices, and are thence all born in adultery, and are more shameless in your connections than the beasts of the fields: I hereby require you to forsake these sinful practices and to be like the rest of mankind; and if you are disobedient to these commands, I have made repeated vows to honour the whole of you with Islam and to march all the chief persons to the seat of Government."[1] Tipu's proclamation created universal resentment and the whole country rose in rebellion. Fearing forcible conversion about 30,000 Brahmins alone fled to Travancore. The Kottayam and Kadattanad Rajas sought the English East India Company's protection. Calicut was attacked in November 1788. Tipu's officers laid hands on the Karanavappad of Manjeri. The Nairs of Calicut and South Malabar headed by Ravi Varma and other princes of the *Padinjare Kovilakam* turned in despair on their oppressors. Tipu sent 6,000 troops under M. Lally to raise the siege, but Ravi Varma could not be driven out of the field.

Early in 1789 Tipu himself came down to Malabar via the Tamarasseri Ghat to enforce his proclamation at the point of the sword. General orders were issued to his army that "every being in the district without distinction should be honoured with Islam, that the houses of such as fled to avoid that honour should be burned, that they should be traced to their lurking places, and that all means of truth and falsehood, force or fraud should be employed to effect their universal conversion." The Kadattanad Raja's fortified palace at Kuttipuram was surrounded and 2,000 Nairs, forced to surrender after a resistance of several days, were circumcised and regaled with beef Several Rajas and rich land owners fled to Travancore where

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 68.

the Dharma Raja rendered them all help to rehabilitate themselves in their new surroundings. The poor Nairs, however, retreated into the jungles and were relentlessly pursued by Mysorean troops. From their jungle homes the Nairs could engage themselves in a kind of guerilla warfare against the enemy forces. Hence Tipu organised a regular and systematic Nair hunt with the help of his soldiers. He then proceeded to Cannanore and after celebrating the marriage of his son with the daughter of the Ali Raja, marched along the coast of Chowghat to overawe the native population by a show of his power. From there he retired to Coimbatore after making arrangements for the administrative reorganisation of the province and leaving a permanent army of occupation to frighten the population into passive submission.

Tipu's expulsion from Kerala

The final act of the Mysorean drama was now about to begin. The conquest of Travancore had always been the ultimate goal of the policy of the Mysore Sultans in Kerala. Tipu was infuriated by the action of the Dharma Raja of Travancore in giving political asylum in his kingdom to the native chieftains of Malabar. He, therefore, set out from Coimbatore in October 1789, and attacked 'the Travancore Lines'. The first attack having failed, he got reinforcements from Mysore and Malabar and captured the Lines in a second attack on 15th April. Tipu proceeded further south as far as Verapoly, but the approach of the monsoon and the gathering storm in his rear compelled him to withdraw from Kerala.[1]

The real cause of the withdrawal of Tipu from Kerala was the declaration of war against him by Lord Cornwallis and the formation of the triple alliance of the English, the Nizam and the Mahrattas. Tipu had left portions of his army behind him in Kerala. Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, managed to secure the help and co-operation of the Malabar princes against Tipu by promising to restore to the respective rulers, in return for a moderate tribute and some commercial privileges, all the territories conquered from them by the Mysore Sultans. The terms of the Zamorin's co-operation were embodied in the form of a *Cowlnama,* which was formally drawn up and given to Eralpad Kishen Raja at Coimbatore on

1 The story of Tipu's attack on the Travancore Lines and his subsequent retreat falls within the scope of the *Trichur and Ernakulam District Gazetteers.*

the 27th September.[1] The Rajas of North Malabar including Kerala Varma of Pazhassi also joined the English to clear Kerala of Tipu's forces.

The Mysore army was engaged by the English troops in several battles in the various parts of Malabar and decisive defeats were inflicted on them. The first of the Mysore strongholds to fall to the English was Palghat, and it was formally occupied by the English garrison under Col. Stuart on 22nd September 1790. Following its fall an English army under Col. Hartley marched up the coast clearing Chettuvai island of the enemy and eventually captured Chowghat. The scattered fragments of the Mysore army had in the meantime collected under the banner of Martab Khan, one of Tipu's Generals, and on 10th December a decisive battle took place at Tirurangadi, exactly at the same spot where Col. Humberstone had defeated Makhdum Ali 9 years before. Martab Khan was defeated with a loss of nearly 2,000 men killed, wounded and captured, and he fled first to Feroke and then up the Tamarasseri pass with the remnants of his forces. Cannanore was reduced on the 16th December 1790. This was followed by the fall of Badagara and Kuttipuram forts and the Mappila settlement at Valarpattanam. Kerala was now completely cleared of Tipu's forces. In the meantime, a simultaneous invasion of Mysore from the east and west had forced Tipu to sue for peace with the English East India Company. By the Treaty of Seringapatam concluded on March 18, 1792 the whole of the erstwhile Malabar District except Wynad Taluk was ceded to the English East India Company.[2]

Causes of the failure of the Kerala policy of the Mysore Sultans

The reasons for the failure of Tipu Sultan are varied. First of all, with the withdrawal of Tipu, the Mysore army in Kerala became practically leaderless. There was no one capable enough to organise its scattered fragments into an

1 *Treaties and Engagements* etc. Logan, pp. 87-88.

2 Wynad which in 1798, Lord Wellesley, the Governor-General, pronounced to be a part of the domains of Tipu was ceded to the British by the Partition Treaty of Mysore after the fall of Seringapatam in 1798. The Pazhassi Raja who claimed the Taluk resisted all attempts of the British to take possession of it. The revolt of Pazhassi which is one of the most important episodes in the history of the freedom struggle in Kerala will be dealt with at length in the *Cannanore District Gazetteer*.

effective and well-knit striking force. Tipu's sudden retreat from Kerala also adversely affected the morale of the troops that he left behind. Moreover, the secret agents of the refugee chieftains and princes who were living in Travancore had been actively at work in various parts of Malabar organising a patriotic underground movement against Mysorean authority. In the face of this movement the administrative system organised by Tipu completely broke down. The misfortunes which befell Tipu at home also rendered it impossible for him to rush help to his hard pressed garrisons in Kerala. Tipu had been attacked from all sides and the British army had been advancing towards Seringapatam. In the face of this mounting crisis at home the Sultan lost all his interest in the affairs of Kerala. Above all, the Mysore Sultans and their agents in Malabar had been guilty of the most heinous crimes which had antagonised the native population. Their policy of forcible conversion and destruction of temples had made their administration extremely odious. It may also be mentioned in this connection that the Nair population played a dominant part in the struggle against Tipu. "The Nairs preferred the privations of living in the jungles to being protected by Tipu. No inducements would bring them back to their fields: no blandishments would make them give up their resistance. Abandoned by their chiefs and nobles who preferred the pension of the Raja of Travancore, without support from outside, with nothing but their love of freedom to guide them, the Nair population kept up for a period of 25 years a resistance which is unparalleled in Indian History."[1]

Malabar after the Mysore Invasions

John Buchanan who journeyed through the District of Malabar (1800-1801) under the orders of Lord Wellesley, the Governor-General of India, has given us interesting glimpses of the conditions prevailing in Malabar during the period after the Mysore invasions. He quotes the following from Murdoch Brown who was in charge of the Company's pepper plantations and was also the tax collector. "Malabar when Haider invaded it, was divided into a number of petty Rajaships; the Government of which being perfectly feudal, neither laws, nor a system of revenue, were known among its inhabitants. Owing to the quarrels between the different Rajas, and the turbulent spirit of the Nair chiefs, who were frequently in arms against each

1 *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 397.

other, the state of the country was little favourable to the introduction of order or good Government. Malabar, however, was then a country very rich in money. For ages, the inhabitants had been accumulating the precious metals that had been given them for the produce of their gardens. Haider's only object, in the countries that he conquered, was to acquire money; and, provided he got plenty of that he was very indifferent as to the means which his officers took to obtain it. Immediately after the conquest of Malabar, vast sums were extorted from its inhabitants by the military officers, and by the Canarese Brahmins placed over the revenues. Of these extortions Haider received a share; and no want of a system of revenue was felt until these sources began to fail. When he found the assets from Malabar fell short of its charges, he listened to proposals from the Rajas to become tributaries. An estimate of the revenue was made by the above-mentioned Brahmins; who, as many of them were to remain with the Rajas as spies on their actions, took care that the estimate should be so formed, as to leave a large sum to be divided between them and the Rajas. By this new order of things, these latter were vested with despotic authority over the other inhabitants instead of the very limited prerogatives that they had enjoyed by the feudal system, under which they could neither exact revenue from the lands of their vassals, nor exercise any direct authority in their districts. Thus the ancient constitution of Government (which, although defective in many points, was favourable to agriculture, from the lands being unburthened with revenue) was in a great measure destroyed, without any other being substituted in its room. The Raja was no longer, what he had been, the head of a feudal aristocracy with limited authority, but the all powerful deputy of a despotic prince, whose military force was always at his command to curb or chastise any of the chieftains who were inclined to dispute or disobey his mandates. The condition of the inhabitants under the Rajas, thus reinstated in their Government was worse than it had been under the Canarese Brahmins; for the Rajas were better informed of the substance of individuals, and knew the methods of getting at it. In short, the precarious tenures by which the Rajas held their station, joined to the uncontrolled authority with which they were vested, rendered them to the utmost degree rapacious; and not even a pretence was set up for exacting money from all such as were known to have any. There were no laws; money insured impunity to criminals, and innocent

blood was often shed by the Raja's own hands, under the pretence of justice. In the space of a few years many of them amassed treasure, to an amount unknown to their ancestors; and had it not been for the dread that they entertained of Haider's calling them to account for their ill-gotten wealth, their situation under him was better than that which they held before the invasion. The country, however, was daily declining in produce and population; in so much that at the accession of Tipu, I have reason to conclude, from my own observations, and from the inquiries which I then made, that they were reduced to one half of what they had been at the time of Haider's conquest. But still greater calamities were reserved for the unfortunate inhabitants of this country in the reign of the Sultan. During the Government of his father the Hindus continued unmolested in the exercise of their religion; the customs and observances of which, in many very essential points, supply the place of laws. To them it was owing, that some degree of order had been preserved in society during the changes that had taken place. Tipu, on the contrary, early undertook to render Islamism the sole religion of Malabar. In this cruel and impolitic undertaking he was warmly seconded by the Mappilas, men possessed of a strong zeal, and of a large share of that spirit of violence and depredation which appears to have invariably been an ingredient in the character of the professors of their religion, in every part of the world where it has spread. All the confidence of the Sultan was bestowed on Mappilas, and in every place they became the officers and instruments of Government. The Hindus were everywhere persecuted, and plundered of their riches, of their women, and of their children. All such as could flee to other countries did so: those who could not escape took refuge in the forests, from whence they waged a constant predatory war against their oppressors. To trace the progress of these evils would carry me too far. I mention them only for the purpose of showing, how the ancient Government of this country was at last completely destroyed, and anarchy was introduced. The Mappilas never had any laws, nor any authority, except in the small district of Cannanore, even over their own sect; but were entirely subject to the Hindu chiefs, in whose dominions they resided. Tipu's code was never known beyond the limits of Calicut. During this period of total anarchy the number of Mappilas was greatly increased, multitudes of Hindus were circumcised by force, and many of the lower orders were converted. By these means, at the

breaking out of the war conducted by Lord Cornwallis, the population of Hindus was reduced to a very inconsiderable number. The descendants of the Rajas were then invited to join the Company's forces; and, when Tipu's army had been expelled from Malabar, many Nairs returned from their exile in Travancore; but their number was trifling, compared with what it had been at the commencement of the Sultan's reign."

"From this short sketch it is evident, that this province, at the time it was ceded, had really no form of Government, and required a new system to be framed for its use. The feudal system was broken; and no other kind of administration was known to the Rajas who laid claim to their respective districts, than that which they had exercised or witnessed under Haider, and which was a compound of corruption and extortion. To these men, however, the most unfit that could have been selected, was the whole authority of Government over the natives entrusted. Two evils of great magnitude were the consequence of this measure: the extortions and corruptions of the preceding administrations were continued; while the ancient feudal institutions of military service were revived, and all the Nairs thereby attached to the different chieftains, and these again to the Rajas. Nothing could exceed the despotic rapaciousness of these men, to oppose which there was no barrier; for it is well known, that none of the inhabitants dare complain against Raja, whatever injuries they may have sustained, assassination being a certain follower of complaint. It is not surprising, that under such rulers agriculture did not flourish, and that the fields now cultivated (which in some districts bear but a small proportion to those that are waste) should yield but very indifferent crops."[1]

The foregoing observations of Murdoch Brown serve to give us a true picture of the conditions in Malabar during the period following the expulsion of Tipu. The main effects of the Mysorean conquest on Malabar may, however, be recapitulated. The Mysore invasions produced far-reaching changes in the economic and social life of the people. The continuous warfare which characterised the period of the invasions destroyed the economic prosperity of the country. The brutalities committed by the Mysorean troops led to large scale migration from Malabar of people belonging to all strata of society. The hard

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1 *A journey through Mysore, Canara and Malabar*, John Buchanan, pp. 548-551.

working peasants took refuge in the forests and jungles. Consequently agriculture was ruined. What was once a fertile and flourshing country now assumed the appearance of a cheerless desert. The Nair gentry was dispossessed and shorn of its military and political power. The decline of agriculture resulted in their economic impoverishment also. The Nairs, in course of time, lost their position of social predominance. The Namboothiris, the Kshatriyas and others belonging to the higher strata of society fled to Travancore and with them the arts and letters patronised by them. Out of the ruins of the old social hierarchy was born a new middle class which was destined to play a leading role in the future. Moreover, many a flourishing town had been laid waste by Mysore troops. Trade and commerce also declined steadily. The cultivation of pepper on which depended the economic prosperity of the country was suspended over large areas and Kerala's once prosperous pepper trade pactically came to a standstill. The once flouishing sea ports of Kerala now presented a deserted look. Gold and silver which the country had amassed by centuries of trade with foreign countries virtually disappeared from the land. Extensive fields lay uncultivated, houses of nobles and landlords were in ruins and daily worship in many important temples was suspended. The economic depression that set in was so severe that the common people were on the verge of famine and starvation. To add to the economic distress of the times, the Mysorean invasions created a cleavage between the Mappilas and the Hindus and destroyed social harmony. The former had helped the Mysore Sultans in their campaigns in Kerala and aroused the active hostility of the Hindu population. With the expulsion of Tipu the Mappilas who had enjoyed political power for more than 30 years lost their privileged status. They were unable to reconcile themselves to this discomfiture and were thereafter in a state of general revolt against established authority. The Mappila outbreaks of the 19th century were thus in a way a legacy of the Mysore invasions. The invasions also led to some salutary results. They brought in a new force in the affairs of Kerala. Haider and Tipu sought to establish a new system of centralised administration in the territories that came under their sway. This led to the collapse of the old feudal system and the beginning of the modern ideas about State and Government as far as Kerala was concerned. Another salutary result of the invasion was the introduction for the first time of a system of land taxation based on the actual produce from the land. "In fact the Mysorean period had

wiped out the middle ages in Kerala and changed its inherited social structure in a manner which it was impossible to revive. The ancient regime had ended, and it was a new society, based no doubt on the old, but all the same on the new principles of land holding and legal rights that took its place."[1]

Political settlement and the establishment of British Supremacy.

Immediately after the Treaty of Seringapatam (1792) the Company set itself seriously to the task of establishing a stable Government and restoring law and order in Malabar. We have already seen that Lord Cornwallis had earlier given a promise to the native rulers that they would be restored to their former territories after the expulsion of Tipu. In fact, several of these rulers returned home from their exile in Travancore in the hope of being restored. But in the new situation created by the cession of Malabar to the Company by Tipu under the Treaty of Seringapatam, the Governor-General had no intention of abiding by his promise. He was fully conscious of the importance and strategic value of the Kerala coast to the English in the event of another war with Tipu. He therefore decided to bring Malabar under the direct rule of the Company at the earliest. General Abercromby, Governor of Bombay, was sent to Malabar to negotiate agreements with the local rulers in regard to the collection of revenue for the coming year and also to recommend a suitable form of Government for the newly conquered province. He arrived at Cannanore on 20th July 1790 and appointed Mr. Farmer and Major Dow as Commissioners to enquire into the state of the country and effect a political settlement. The Commissioners soon became aware of the practical difficulties that would arise from the immediate assumption of the reins of administration by the Company's officers. Hence they decided to work out an interim arrangement. Their idea was to have separate engagements with the local Rajas and utilise their influence and knowledge of local conditions to maintain peace and collect revenue in the newly acquired tracts at least for a period of one year.

The Bombay Commissioners started with the Rajas of Chirakkal, Kottayam and Kadattanad in North Kerala. According to the terms of the agreements entered into with them

1. *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 441.

the Rajas were to exercise their authority subject to the control of the Company and were to accept a Resident or Dewan each to reside with them to enquire into complaints of oppression. They were also to pay fixed tribute to the Company. The Company or the merchants appointed by them were to have the exclusive monopoly of the pepper trade. A proper valuation of the revenues of the territories was to be made jointly by the representatives of the Company and the rulers concerned. The agreements with these rulers were followed by similar agreements with the rulers of Cannanore, Nileswaram, Vitul Hegra, Kumbla, Bungor and Chowtwara.

Having effected a political settlement in the North, the Bombay Commissioners next turned their attention to the Zamorin. The Zamorin was, however, not in a hurry to negotiate with the Commissioners. Following the withdrawal of Tipu, he had come to Chowghat and formally celebrated his Ariyittuvazcha in April 1792. From there he sent the Munalpad with his minister Swaminatha Pattar to settle with the Bombay Commissioners at Calicut. In the discussion with the Commissioners the Zamorin's delegates took their stand on the Cowlnama of 1790 and demanded the restoration of their chief to his former territories. The Commissioners were not in favour of a restoration of the 'ancient regime' and therefore the negotiations dragged on. In the meantime, they leased a portion of the Zamorin's territory consisting of Payyanad, Payyoremala, Kizhakkumpuram, Vadakkumpuram and Pulavayi to the Raja of Kurumbranad. The Raja had however to acknowledge that the "Honourable Company alone" were the rightful sovereign of these Districts, and that he was only the Hon. Company's "Manager" to collect the revenues administer justice and preserve the peace of the Districts. The Zamorin's agents were required to settle with him for sums collected by them. The Company also handed over Naduvattam in the Palghat District to the Palghat Raja on similar conditions.

The Commissioners next settled with the rulers of Parappanad and Vettatnad. The Parappanad District was farmed out on 11th August, 1792 for the net sum of Rs. 14,000 to Veera Varma, one of the few members of the Parappanad family who had escaped forcible conversion at the hands of Tipu. The Vettatnad District was next leased on the 14th August 1792 on behalf of the Raja by his Minister for Rs. 34,807; but this Raja did not long survive. He died on

24th May 1793, leaving no heirs natural or adoptive to succeed him and his assets were declared to have passed to the East India Company.

At this stage the Zamorin had decided to give way and enter into a political settlement with the Company. An agreement was signed on the 18th August 1792 with the fourth Raja of *Kizhakke Kovilakam* on behalf of and as surety for the Zamorin for Rs. 416,366¼. It contained 16 articles which formed the basis of all subsequent proceedings with the Zamorin.[1] The tracts leased were the Cusba and Ramnad in Calicut, Vadakkumpuram and Kizhakkumpuram in Kurumbranad which the Kurumbranad Raja agreed to give up to the Zamorin. Ponnani, Cheranad and Venkata Kotta in Vettatnad, Chowghat, Nedunganad and Karimpuzha in Chowghat, Ernad and Malappuram in Ernad and Kollengode, Koduvayur, and Mankara, in Palghat. The duties on land and sea customs were also likewise leased.

As a mark of respect and superiority, the Rajas of Beypore, Parappanad and Vettatnad were required to pay their revenues through the Zamorin who was also temporarily vested, "as in ancient times" with power to administer justice "over all these petty Rajas".

With regard to the mint, an arrangement for one year was entered into with the Zamorin to whom it was leased for Rs. 15,000.

The last separate tract to be settled by the Commissioners was the domain of the Beypore Raja which was leased for Rs. 10,000.

The agreement between the Zamorin and the Commissioners was not accepted by the *Padinjare Kovilakam* branch of the Zamorin's family. This family possessed enormous influence in the country and had been entrusted with the collection of revenue in Nedunganad by the Eralpad. On the strength of this the *Padinjare Kovilakam* Raja attempted to assert his independence of the Zamorin. The dispute took such a serious turn that Captain Burchall seized the rebel prince at Cherpulasseri. He died a day or two afterwards and at the instance of the Zamorin his brother and nephew

1. *Treaties and Engagements*, Logan, pp. 161-164.

were taken into custody and released only upon the *Kizhakke Kovilakam* Raja standing security for their good behaviour and payment of arrears of revenue amounting to one lakh of rupees.[1]

At this stage Sir Robert Abercromby, the Governor of Bombay, arrived in Malabar, and he was followed on December 12, 1792 by Jonathan Duncan and Charles Boddam, the Commissioners specially despatched from Bengal by Lord Cornwallis to co-operate with those from Bombay. The Joint Commissioners were given instructions by the Governor-General to introduce necessary regulations for the control of pepper trade, to work out a permanent settlement of the claims of the local princes and chiefs, to devise arrangements for a revenue settlement on a long term basis, and above all, to create a new administrative and judicial machinery in the newly acquired territories. One of the earliest measures of the Joint Commissioners was to proclaim on December 25, 1792 general freedom of trade in all articles except pepper which was held as a monopoly. On January 9, 1793 they sent round a circular to all the Rajas charged with the collection of the revenues of their Districts forbidding the acceptance, on any pretence whatever, of any presents or gifts. They likewise prohibited the slave trade that was being carried on extensively in children by Mappila merchants with the French and Dutch ports of Mahe and Cochin respectively.

1. The rebellion of the *Padinjare Kovilakam* branch of the family did not end with this episode. An attempt was made later by the two Rajas to assassinate Swaminatha Pattar, the Chief Minister of the Zamorin, because the latter failed to procure them the restoration of Nedunganad. These Rajas then proceeded to the south to foment disturbances. They were joined by Unni Mutta Muppan, a Mappila chief and some Gowndan Poligar Chiefs from Coimbatore who had rebelled against Tipu. Subsequently they were also joined by Kunhi Achan of the Palghat family whose claims to the management of the Palghat District had been rejected by the Joint Commissioners. The Supravisor of Calicut offered Rs. 5,000 as reward for the capture of the *Padinjare Kovilakam* Rajas. They were hotly pursued by Captain Burchall as far as the Anamala mountains from where they escaped into Travancore. The two Rajas eventually returned and came to terms with the English. The Commissioners agreed on 6th January 1797 to their being paid an annual allowance of Rs. 10,000 and the Rajas on their part agreed to reside peacefully thereafter at Calicut.

The Joint Commissioners then proceeded to work out separate agreements with the local rulers in regard to their claims, and permanent status in relation to the Company. On 18th May 1793 they accepted the proposal of the Kurumbranad Raja to have a person appointed by the Company to assist him in the collection of the revenue for the coming year on the result of which a permanent lease might be granted to him not only for the District of Kurumbranad but also for Kottayam and Parappanad which were in the possession of his two nephews of the Kottayam family. Later events were to show that the Kurumbranad Raja had no influence in Kottayam where his nephew Pazhassi Raja exercised supreme authority. The latter was not amenable to the control of his uncle, and hence the uncle was powerless to execute his orders in the Pazhassi country. The Kurumbranad Raja further agreed to relinquish the Districts of Payyanad, Pulavayi, and Payyoremala, which had been included in the first agreement entered into by him.

The Commissioners then started negotiations with the Zamorin. The Zamorin agreed to the institution of a *Canongoe* establishment to keep the accounts of each District. He also agreed to give up his right to customs and transit duties. In regard to the mint a compromise was agreed upon by the Commissioners that the general direction should remain exclusively with the Company while the Zamorin's officers should assist in the details of business and the profits should be divided equally between the two. A *Kararnama* embodying all these was formally executed on 19th June, 1793.[1]

The question of the allowances of the *Sthanees* and the *Kovilakoms* of the Zamorin's family was next taken up and settled to the satisfaction of all the parties concerned. It was decided to set apart for the maintenance of the Zamorin's family 20 per cent of the net land revenue collections, 10 per cent of the gross customs receipts, and half the net profits of the mint. The Joint Commissioners then examined the claims of the Zamorin to control his feudatories. They rejected his claims over Vettatnad, Chettuvai Island and Kavalappara as untenable. But the Zamorin's claim over Payyanad

1. *Treaties and Engagements*, Logan, pp. 190-192. Similar terms were accepted shortly afterwards by the Rajas of Kadattanad and Kurumbranad, the latter making separately similar engagements also for Kottayam and Parappanad.

was admitted while his demand for the restoration of Pulavayi was left in suspense to be settled by the Supravisor. The Zamorin at the same time renounced his claim on Payyoremala, which was placed directly under the Company. The Zamorin also agreed to give the Raja of Punnathur a sum of Rs. 5,700 every year as allowance.

On 3rd January 1795, the Company concluded a new agreement with the Zamorin for five years. But the latter failed to pay in the revenues of his District even in the first year. Thereupon the Commissioners acting on the strict orders of the Governor of Bombay took over on 5th July, 1796 the direct management of the Zamorin's estates. It may be mentioned in this connection that the Mappilas of Ernad and Malappuram had molested the Zamorin's collectors and he had some time previously renounced the direct management of those Districts which had in consequence been made over to Manjeri Attan Gurukkal for management under the Raja. For these and the remaining Districts the Zamorin eventually settled the accounts and the Districts were accordingly returned to him on the 24th August 1796. But the troubles in Ernad persisted due to the rebellion of Attan Gurukkal and the Zamorin was therefore not able to pay his revenues with punctuality. The management of the Districts was again assumed by the Company in October 1798. On November 15, 1806 the Zamorin and the English entered into a fresh agreement according to which the Zamorin's annual *Malikhana* or allowance was fixed at Rs. 1,32,163 and As. 4, the amount being payable in quarterly equal instalments at the *Cutcherry* of the Principal Collector at Calicut to the receipt of the senior member of each *Rajeum* or *Kovilakam*. The agreement also laid down that the *Malikhana* "as hereby fixed shall be considered as security for the good and dutiful behaviour towards the Company's government of each and every member of the *Rajeum* or family to which it may now or hereafter be payable".

Administrative Changes

The political settlement with the local chiefs was accompanied by the introduction of far-reaching administrative changes. On March 30, 1793 Malabar was divided into two administrative divisions, the Northern and the Southern, presided over by a Superintendent each at Tellicherry and Cherpulasseri under the general control of the Supravisor and

Chief Magistrate of the province of Malabar, who had his headquarters at Calicut. The Superintendents had revenue and magisterial charge of their respective divisions and a senior assistant was Judge and Magistrate of Calicut. At the beginning of 1796 the office of Supravisor was merged in a commission sent to Malabar to enquire into the charges of corruption brought by the Zamorin against the last Supravisor James Stevens. The commission was abolished on the score of expense soon after the transfer of Malabar on May 21, 1800 from the Bombay to the Madras Presidency. Major Macleod, the first Principal Collector, took charge of the District on October 1, 1801 and he was assisted by 9 Subordinate Collectors.

Revenue and Judicial Administration.

Having effected the political settlement of Malabar and made the necessary arrangements for its general administration, the Commissioners drew up regulations for the administration of revenue modelled on the Bengal Code, duly modified to suit local conditions. These were followed by regulations for civil and criminal administration of justice which took effect from 1st July 1793 with some supplementary articles in both departments. In the Revenue Department Dewans were appointed to help the Supravisor and Superintendents and they were bound by *muchilkas* or penal obligations for good behaviour and integrity. In the Judicial Department seven local *Darogas* or native judges were appointed subordinate to the Provincial Courts of the Superintendents viz. at Cannanore, Quilandi, Tirurangadi, Ponnani, Palghat, Tanur, and Chettuvai. The Roman Catholic *padre* of Calicut objected to the "infidel tribunal" of the *Darogas* and claimed the old privilege of jurisdiction over Christians exercised by the Portuguese factory. This claim was rejected by the Company as being incompatible with the principles of British rule but the *padre* was allowed to attend the Fouzdari Court to explain the law at the trial of Christians.

The Commissioners further laid down regulations relating to the *Jenmis*.. It may be mentioned here that during the period of the Mysorean occupation thousands of Hindu *Jenmis* had mortgaged their lands to Mappilas for small sums of money and emigrated to Travancore. While some of them did not return even after the British occupation of Malabar, those

who returned failed to reach an amicable settlement with their tenants or *Kanamdars*. The former demanded the restoration of their *Jenmam* right, but the *Kanamdars* claimed the same for the non-redemption of the debt. The British plan for the solution of this complicated problem only made it more complex than ever before. As Logan remarks, the British viewed the status of a *Jenmi* as being equivalent in all respects to that of a Roman *dominus*. They did not take pains to investigate properly the status of the *Jenmis* of Malabar. "The *Jenmi* was simply a man exercising authority within a certain defined area and entitled as such to a well-defined share of the produce (the *Pattam* or ancient land revenue assessment) of the land lying within that area."[1] The Commissioners misunderstood the whole position and constituted the *Jenmis* into the lords of the soil with the result that in course of time the *Jenmis* began to trample under foot the rights of the ryots. It may also be stated here that the ryots were accustomed to paying their tax direct to the state during the period of the Mysorean occupation. Hence they viewed the Company's Government as the inheritors in succession to Tipu and Haider Ali of the *Pattam* or land revenue assessment, and this was explicitly stated to the Commissioners by a deputation of influential Mappilas whom they called together to consult on the subject.[2] Unfortunately the Commissioners did not accept this point of view. This mistaken revenue policy followed by the English led to increasing discontentment among the Mappila ryots, and proved itself to be the most potent cause of the Mappila outbreaks of the 19th and 20th centuries.

Rebellions of the early 19th century.

Early in the 19th century British power in Kerala had to meet the challenge of internal rebellions organised by patriotic elements of the population. During the period 1800-1805 there broke out the famous rebellion of Kerala Varma of the Kottayam family who is known to history as the Pazhassi Raja. The Pazhassi rebellion shook for a while the very foundations of British power in North Kerala. It was, however, put down by the English with an iron hand and the Pazhassi Raja and his lieutenants were killed. The rebellion which broke out in Travancore and Cochin during the period 1808-1809 under the leadership of Velu Tampi and Paliath

1. *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, p. 495.
2. *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, p. 496.

Achan did not seriously disturb the general peace that prevailed in Malabar following the suppression of the Pazhassi rebellion. However, in 1812 the Kuricchiyans and Kurumbans of Wynad resented the exaction of the land revenue in money instead of in kind, and they besieged the British garrisons at Manantoddy (North Wynad) and Sultan's Battery (South Wynad). Troops were rushed to the disaffected tracts from Mysore and from the coast, and peace was soon restored. For about a quarter of a century after the troubles in Wynad Malabar was free from internal commotions and the authorities devoted themselves to internal reforms and the people settled down quietly to their agricultural pursuits.

Mappila outbreaks.

But the peaceful conditions prevailing in Malabar were soon disturbed by a series of Mappila outbreaks which began with an incident at Pantalur *Desam* in Ernad Taluk in November 1836 when a Mappila after murdering a Hindu and wounding three others was himself shot by a Taluk peon. During the period from 1836 to 1853 not fewer than twenty-two outbreaks in which individual Mappilas fatally stabbed Hindu *Jenmis* were reported from various parts of Malabar, particularly the Mappila zone in the Kozhikode District. One of the ghastly tragedies of the whole series was enacted at Manjeri and Angadipuram in August-September, 1849 when the local Mappilas under Attan Gurukkal seized the Manjeri Karanamulpad's temple, and in the ensuing clash with the military sixty-four Mappilas lost their lives. Logan and Innes give details of the various incidents connected with the Mappila unrest which reached its high watermark between the years 1836 and 1853. It is not necessary for the purpose of our study to highlight all these individual incidents. The underlying causes of these disturbances and the measures taken by the British Government to deal with them deserve our main attention. In 1852 T.L. Strange, the Judge of the Sadr Adalat, was placed on special duty to enquire into the causes of the disturbances and suggest remedial measures. He came to the conclusion that religious fanaticism fanned by the preaching of ambitious priests like the Mampram Tangal[1] was the

1. Mampram Tangal was a leader of the Mappilas of Tirurangadi, which had been a centre of the Mappila unrest. The Tangal was suspected of being personally responsible for several outrages such as the murder of the *Adhikari* of the Amsam in 1843. The

primary cause of the Mappila unrest and he, therefore, advocated a stern policy of repression. In pursuance of his recommendations a Special Police Force was organised and Acts XXIII and XXIV of 1854 were passed into law to deal with the situation created by the Mappila disturbances. The former empowered the authorities to fine the Mappila population of *Amsams* involved in outrages and to take stringent measures against all persons suspected of complicity in them. The latter rendered illegal the possession of the war-knife by the Mappilas after 1st February 1855.

The strong measures adopted in pursuance of the provisions of the Mappila Acts embittered the feelings of the Mappila community. A few months later H.V. Conolly, the District Magistrate of Malabar, was murdered by four Mappila convicts at his bungalow at Calicut. The assassins managed to escape, but were captured five days later in the Ernad Taluk and shot down. Nine *Amsams* implicated in the outrage were fined and the net proceeds of the fines aggregating nearly Rs. 31,000 were granted to Mrs. Conolly.

In spite of the heavy penalties imposed under the Mappila Acts, the Mappila unrest continued unabated. In 1873 Kolattur was the centre of a tragic outbreak. In 1880 there was another serious outbreak at Melattur. Immediately after this incident an anonymous petition was received by the Government enumerating the various grievances of the agriculturists of Malabar and citing eviction in particular as the root cause of the Mappila unrest. W. Logan and H. Wigram, District Judge of South Malabar, who reported on the petition held the view that T.L. Strange had belittled the seriousness of agrarian discontent and poverty as a cause of the disturbances. On 5th February 1881 W. Logan was appointed Special

Tangal had died shortly afterwards and his tomb had become the chosen shrine of his followers. His son and successor Saiyyid Fazl acquired an equally great ascendency over the local Mappilas. The British authorities in Malabar considered the Mampram Tangal as the evil genuis responsible for the Mappila outbreaks and T.L. Strange was directed to report on the measures that were to be taken against him. On the very day this order was passed (February 17, 1852), ten or twelve thousand Mappilas, many of them armed, assembled at Tirurangadi in secret conference with the Tangal. Any attempt to arrest him would have led to terrible bloodshed, but H. V. Conolly, the District Magistrate, prevailed upon him to leave Malabar peacefully. The Tangal sailed for Arabia on 19th March 1852.

Commissioner to enquire into the land tenures and tenant rights in Malabar and to consider the best means of removing another Mappila grievance of long standing viz. the difficulty of getting from their Hindu landlords sites for mosques and burial grounds. He investigated the question in all its aspects and expressed the view that the true position of the *Jenmi* or landlord had been completely misunderstood by the earlier British administrators and after them by the courts of justice. In the Mappila outrages he saw an instrument designed to "counteract the overwhelming influence, then backed by the British Courts, of the *Jenmis* in the exercise of the novel powers of ouster and of eviction for rent conferred upon them. A *Jenmi* who by the courts evicted, whether fraudulently or otherwise, a substantial tenant was decreed to have merited death; and it was considered a religious virtue, not a fault, to have killed such a man, and to have afterwards died in arms fighting against an infidel Government, which sanctioned such injustice." He recommended various remedies which were elaborately discussed by two commissions. The ultimate results of Logan's proposals were the Malabar Compensation for Tenants Improvements Act (Act I 1887, amended and improved by Act I 1900), and the decision of Government that in special cases it would consider the advisability of acquiring land for Mappila cemeteries under the Land Acquisition Act.

A period of excitement followed Logan's Commission and between 1883 and 1898 several outrages took place in various parts of the District such as Ariyakkod, and Pandikkad. The Special Police Force and British troops who were deployed to quell the disturbances committed several excesses. But there were also occasions when the police and the military were outnumbered by the rebels and they too suffered casualities. In 1884 after the outrage at Ariyakkod the disarming of Calicut, Ernad and Valluvanad Taluks was resolved upon as the rebels who were armed with guns and other deadly weapons constituted a menace to law and order. During this period troops were posted at various centres in the disturbed tracts of the District. But the attitude of Mappila rebels towards the guardians of law and order was one of open defiance. On several occasions when the troops opened fire, the rebels, instead of taking shelter, even deliberately courted death offering themselves as targets to the bullets. By 1898 the Mappila unrest had subsided. The reason for this was that

the Mappila community in general had by this time begun to show far less sympathy for violent outbreaks than in the past. Between 1898 and 1915 the District was practically free from these disturbances and it seemed as though the Mappila unrest had become a thing of the past. The average Mappila had now begun to take advantage of the new opportunities that were opening out to him. He enlisted in the army, took up work in the rubber plantations and in the timber trade which flourished in the District, and also managed to get into his hands most of the petty retail business in the weekly markets. The more well-to-do among the Mappilas had also begun to take to modern education. In these circumstances a change of outlook took place in the Mappila community and relations with the members of other communities and classes improved considerably.

Causes of the Mappila outbreaks

It may be relevant in this connection to investigate the underlying causes of the Mappila outbreaks which marred the tranquility of the District for about a century. British administrators like T.L. Strange sought to dismiss the Mappila outbreaks as manifestations of sheer religious fanaticism. But opposed to this school of thought there were others like W. Logan who firmly held the view that the Mappila disturbances had their origin mainly in agrarian depression and destitution. On a closer study of the facts of the case, the latter view seems to be more rational and convincing. While it cannot be denied that the religious fanaticism of the illiterate Mappila masses was an important factor in the unrest, it would not be correct to ascribe the disturbances to religious fanaticism alone. The outbreaks had undoubtedly an economic basis. In the peculiar social and economic structure of Malabar the vast majority of the landlords were Hindus, particularly Namboothiris and Nairs, while the bulk of the landless peasantry consisted of poor illiterate Mappilas. In the early thirties of the 19th century when the prices of agricultural commodities had risen and the tide of prosperity had begun to set in, the Hindu landlords began to follow a policy of large scale eviction of tenants from their lands without payment of any compensation whatsoever. In addition to the strained relations subsisting between the landlords and tenants, the acute poverty which was rampant in the Mappila zone of Malabar also contributed to the unrest.

Annual famines had been almost a regular feature of Malabar in those days, and perhaps, it was not an accident that the Mappila outbreaks also took place during periods when the worst famine conditions prevailed. Thus it may be seen that the Mappila outbreaks were due to three main causes, viz., fanaticism, agrarian discontent and poverty.

Beginnings of the National Movement.

We may now briefly trace the origin and growth of the political movement in the erstwhile Malabar area of Kerala with particular reference to the role of the Kozhikode District. The Indian National Congress, which was founded in 1885, attracted the attention of the people of the District from its very inception. In the closing years of the 19th century delegates from Calicut and other parts of Malabar attended the annual sessions of the Congress. In 1897 a Malayalee, Sir C. Sankaran Nair, got the unique honour of being called upon to preside over the Amraoti session of the Indian National Congress. However, till the beginning of the 20th century, there was no organised political movement in Kerala. In 1903 a conference presided over by C. Vijayaraghavachariar of Salem was held at Calicut under the auspices of the Congress. Even after this conference not much was heard of the Congress for a few years. In 1908 a District Congress Committee was formed in Malabar, but organised political activity began only during the period of the Great War (1914-1918). In 1916 when the All India Home Rule League was founded by Dr. Annie Beasant, a branch of it started functioning in Malabar with K. P. Kesava Menon as its Secretary. Menon was also the Secretary of the Malabar District Congress Committee. Under the joint auspices of the Home Rule League and the District Congress Committee several meetings and processions were organised in Calicut and elsewhere. Branches of the two organisations sprang up in various parts of Malabar and political activity reached a high pitch.

In 1916 there took place at Calicut a sensational incident which highlighted the rising tempo of the national movement and the increasing political consciousness of the people. A meeting was held at Calicut to consider ways and means of raising public contributions for the Governor's War Fund. It was presided over by Collector Innes and was attended by the

District Judge, District Superintendent of Police, important officials of the place, and prominent public men. A formal resolution was moved at the meeting expressing its resolve to raise public contributions and present a purse to the Governor during his impending visit to Calicut. K. P. Kesava Menon who had even earlier given notice of his intention to oppose any such move rose to address the audience in Malayalam. Collector Innes who was annoyed at Menon's venture to speak in the regional language refused him permission to proceed with the speech in spite of the spontaneous demand from the public that he should be allowed to speak in his mother tongue. Thereupon K. P. Kesava Menon accompanied by the vast majority of the audience walked out of the meeting place. The incident created a profound impression on the people all over the District.

In 1916 the first Malabar District Political Conference was held at Palghat under the presidency of Dr. Annie Beasant. Since then every year such political conferences were held. The second Political Conference took place at Calicut in 1917 under the presidency of Sir C. P. Ramaswamy Iyer, the third at Tellicherry in 1918 under the presidency of Mir Azad Ali Khan Bahadur, a Zamindar of Benganappilli, and the fourth at Badagara in 1919 under the presidency of K. P. Raman Menon. In all these Political Conferences the landlords and the rich people of Malabar played an important part. The resolutions passed at the conferences were not revolutionary either in their language or their contents. They were mainly appeals to the British Government for the introduction of such reforms as increased representation in the legislature, expansion of local self-governing bodies, provision of better facilities for education, repeal of repressive laws like the Mappila Acts etc. The Calicut conference even called upon the people to make liberal contributions to the War Fund, while the very first resolution passed at the Badagara Conference affirmed loyalty to the British Crown. The leaders of these early Political Conferences were believers in constitutional agitation rather than in militant action.

The Manjeri Political Conference 1920.

The announcement of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919 created a new political situation in the country. There was a school of thought within the Congress which held the view that the Reforms were progressive enough to be accepted

and worked. At the same time there was a large volume of public opinion which regarded them as unsatisfactory and advocated their rejection. A great debate was thus going on in the country between the moderate and extremist wings in the Congress. In the meantime the fifth Malabar District Political Conference was held at Manjeri on 28th April, 1920. The Manjeri Conference was attended by about 1,300 delegates from all parts of the erstwhile Malabar District. The main topic that came up for discussion was the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms. K. P. Raman Menon representing the extremists moved the main political resolution which declared that India was already fit for full self-government and that the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms were unsatisfactory and disappointing. Dr. Annie Beasant who was present at the Conference vehemently opposed this resolution, but when put to vote, it was carried by a huge majority. This provoked a walk-out by Dr. Annie Beasant and her followers from the Conference. The Conference also rejected a resolution which sought to convey its thanks to Lord Montague who had sponsored the Reforms. Another resolution demanding tenancy reforms was also passed at the Conference. The Manjeri Political Conference was a turning point in the history of the political movement in Kerala. The first open rupture between the extremists and the moderates in the Kerala Congress took place at this Conference. The representatives of the landlords who attended the Conference openly sided with the moderates while those of the tenants and the workers sided with the extremists. The Conference was attended by a large number of Muslim delegates. Moreover, the landlords and the richer people practically left the Kerala Congress after the Conference and the leadership of the organisation passed into the hands of the extremists who represented the tenants, the workers, and the middle class.

The Non-Co-operation and Khilaphat Movements

By 1920 Mahatma Gandhi had assumed the leadership of the Indian National Congress. At the Nagpur Congress of the year it was decided to give up constitutional methods of agitation and resort to non-violent non-co-operation with the Government as the means of achieving *Swaraj*. The Non-Co-operation movement in Malabar as elsewhere in the country was accompanied by universal boycott of Councils, titles, foreign goods, courts of law, and educational institutions. Numerous lawyers who had left their profession and students who had boycotted

their colleges threw themselves heart and soul into the movement. The birth of the Non-Co-operation movement also synchronised with another great movement of the times, the Khilaphat movement. The movement was begun as a protest against the action of the British Government in depriving Turkey of her homelands in violation of solemn promises made by Lloyd George, the Premier of England, during the Great War. The Khilaphat issue caused concern not only to Indian Muslims but also to the other communities in the country and it was decided by the Congress to organise the Khilaphat work under the guidance of Mahatma Gandhi. It may be mentioned here that Indian unity in the nineteen-twenties meant Hindu-Muslim unity, and the Congress identified itself with the Khilaphat issue in order to foster Hindu-Muslim unity. The result was that in Malabar which had a sizeable Muslim population the Congress and the Khilaphat movements coalesced themselves into a single movement. Mahatma Gandhi and Shaukat Ali visited Kerala to bring the message of the Non-Co-operation and Khilaphat movements to the local population. Khilaphat committees were formed to work in co-operation with the Congress Committees.

It was at this juncture that Yakub Hassan, a distinguished leader of the Muslims of Madras, visited Calicut on 15th February 1921. A public meeting in the town scheduled to have been addressed by Yakub Hassan was banned by the Government under section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code. Other leaders of the Kerala Congress like U. Gopala Menon, K. Madhavan Nair and Moideen Koya, who too had given notice of their intention to speak at the meeting, also received prohibitory orders. All the leaders decided to speak at the meeting in defiance of the ban. The Government thereupon arrested them and sentenced them each to six months' simple imprisonment. This incident heightened the political tension in Malabar and gave a fillip to the movement. In April, 1921 the first All Kerala Provincial Conference attended by Congress delegates from Malabar, Cochin and Travancore was held at Ottapalam in the Palghat District under the presidency of T. Prakasam. The importance of the Conference lay in the fact that it brought together for the first time Congress workers from all parts of Kerala on a common platform. During the conference the police under the leadership of Hitch Cock, the District Superintendent of Police, manhandled some leading Congressmen and Khilaphatists, but the audience showed remarkable restraint, and behaved in a non-violent manner.

The Malabar Rebellion 1921

Within a few months after the Ottapalam Conference the famous Malabar Rebellion broke out. On 17th August 1921 Yakub Hassan and the other leaders who had been arrested six months before were released and they were accorded a rousing reception at Calicut by the Congress and Khilaphat volunteers. By this time a wide net-work of Khilaphat committees had been set up all over Malabar, particularly in the Ernad and Valluvanad Taluks which were the strongholds of the Mappila community. Alarmed at the progress of the Khilaphat Movement, Government proclaimed the Ernad and Valluvanad Taluks as being under Section 144. About this time a serious outbreak took place at Pookottur in the Ernad Taluk. The police attempted to arrest Vadakkeveettil Muhammad, the Secretary of the local Khilaphat Committee, on the pretext that he had stolen a gun from the Pookottur palace of the Nilambur Tirumulpad. The police searched the house of Muhammad. Thousands of Mappilas of the locality, who were informed of the incident after being summoned by beat of drums in the mosques of the neighbourhood, appeared on the scene armed with knives, swords and spears, and thwarted the attempts of the police to arrest Muhammad. In the meantime another police party under the leadership of Hitch Cock reached Ernad from Calicut. The party entered the mosque at Tirurangadi on the pretext of searching for Muhammad. This action of the police roused the religious feelings of the Mappilas and led to a series of violent outbursts. The Ernad and Valluvanad Taluks, which were the strongholds of the Mappilas, were ablaze with rebellion. The rebels attacked Police Stations, looted Government treasuries, and entered the courts and Registry Offices and destroyed records. Some of the most zealous among the Mappila rebels even climbed into the Judges' seats and proclaimed the end of British rule and the advent of Swaraj. The rebellion soon spread to the neighbouring areas. Tirurangadi, Pookottur, Malappuram, Manjeri, Perinthalmanna, Pandikkad, Tirur, etc. became the storm centres of the rebellion. Three of the principal leaders of the rebellion were Valiakunnath Kunjahammed Haji, Seethi Koya Thangal of Kumaranpathor, and Ali Musaliar. An official history of the Kerala Congress states that upto 28th August 1921, British administration had virtually come to an end in Malappuram, Tirurangadi, Manjeri, and Perinthalmanna. These places had come into the hands of the rebel leaders. Kunjahammed Haji had established such a

complete ascendency over Ernad and Valluvanad Taluks that he even issued passports to those who wanted to leave his "kingdom" and charged them a fee for this according to their ability to pay. He even announced that they would not have to pay tax for the year 1921 as they had already suffered much from robbery and looting, but that in the next year the taxes would be collected. At a public meeting held at Manjeri he declared that no harm should be done to the Hindus and that those Mappilas who resorted to looting would be given exemplary punishments. Seethi Koya Thangal maintained good order and issued circulars warning his men against looting. Ali Musaliar, it is said, declared himself to be a Thangal. The British military and police had to withdraw from the Mappila zone being unable to meet the situation. For more than a week after the outbreak of the rebellion the Mappilas virtually established their own Government in the region. By the end of August several contingents of British troops and Goorkhas arrived on the scene. Several encounters took place between armed Mappila rebels on the one side and the British troops and Goorkhas on the other. One of the most notable encounters was at Pookottur in which British troops sustained heavy casualities and had to withdraw for safety. Another encounter took place at Pandikkad between Mappila rebels and the Goorkha troops in which 200 of the former were killed. The Mappilas also adopted guerilla tactics for which the country around was admirably suited. By the middle of October a form of martial law severer than in the earlier months was introduced. In the final phase of the rebellion the Mappilas became desperate and committed acts of forcible conversion, looting of Hindus, arson and murder besides looting and destroying public offices.

One tragic episode stands out in the history of the Malabar rebellion. On 10th November 1921, 90 Mappila rebels were arrested and thrust into a closed railway goods wagon by armed British troops at the point of the bayonet. The train started from Tirur for Coimbatore. On the way the inmates suffered from oppressive heat and hunger and heart breaking cries could be heard from inside the wagon. By the time the train reached Pothanoor everything seemed to be quiet. But when the wagon was opened it was found that 61 of the inmates had died of suffocation and that the remaining were almost dead. The incident which is known to history as the Wagon Tragedy

is an illustration of the barbarous and inhuman methods resorted to by the British in suppressing the Malabar Rebellion. It roused feelings of horror and indignation among people all over the country.

During the whole period of the rebellion Congress workers were active in the field preaching the cult of non-violence and rendering help to the victims of the disturbances. Mention may be made in this connection of such leaders as M. P. Narayana Menon, K. Madhavan Nair, K. Kelappan, E. Moidu Maulavi, Muhammad Abdur Rahiman and Hassan Koya Molla who tried their best to check the violent turn of events. While the Mappila rebels were being rounded up and punished, these Congress leaders were also arrested and sentenced to varying terms of imprisonment on the pretext of their being in sympathy with the Mappila rebels. The case of M. P. Narayana Menon stands out among these. He had done much to organize Congress work in Malabar, and was the Secretary of the Ernad Taluk Congress Committee at the time of the rebellion. When the lives of Englishmen were in danger during a critical phase of the rebellion, he had used his influence with the Mappilas and saved them. By a strange irony of fate Narayana Menon was later accused of treason and sentenced to 14 years rigorous imprisonment by a military court. It may be mentioned that the basis of the treason charge against Menon was that he was present at the Manjeri meeting addressed by Kunjahammed Haji. Menon served his full term and was released only in September 1934. The Government's policy of arresting Congress leaders and preventing them from using their influence with the Mappilas on the side of moderation and non-violence only helped to worsen the situation. A Resolution on the Mappila disturbances passed at the Ahmedabad session of the Congress in 1921 sought to make it clear that the Non-Co-operation or the Khilaphat movement had nothing to do with the outbreak, that the preachers of non-violence were denied opportunity of preaching the gospel six months prior to the outbreak, and that in any case the movement would not have been prolonged, if leading Non-co-operators like Yakub Hassan and Mahatma Gandhi had been permitted to visit the area.

The Malabar rebellion lasted for about six months. A special court was set up to try the rebels and special laws were promulgated for the purpose. Many rebels were either hanged or deported to the Andaman Islands. Hundreds were sentenced

to long terms of imprisonment ranging between 10 to 14 years. The rebel leaders Kunjahammed Haji, Seethi Koya Thangal, and Ali Musaliar were captured and shot. It has not been possible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the number of persons who lost their lives in the rebellion. According to K. P. Kesava Menon it may not be an exaggeration to say that not less than ten thousand people died in the rebellion.[1]

The rebellion of 1921 was a gigantic popular upheaval the like of which has not been seen in Kerala before or since. It was unprecedented in its magnitude and extent. At its height the rebellion covered more than 220 *Amsams* and large masses of people were involved in it. But in regard to the character of the rebellion, there have been differences of opinion. British historians have spoken of it as the 'Mappila Rebellion', thus giving it a communal colour. It is true that the Mappilas were in the vanguard of the movement and that they bore the brunt of the struggle. But it is not quite correct to represent the whole rebellion as a communal movement simply because of the predominant role played by Mappilas. Several non-Mappila leaders were in active sympathy with the cause of the Mappila rebels. This lifted the Malabar rebellion of 1921 above the purely communal plane, and invested it with the character of a national upheaval. K. P. Kesava Menon who had intimate personal knowledge of the men and events connected with the Rebellion has expressed the view that its genesis lay in the violent retaliatory tactics adopted by the Mappilas in countering police repression. He says, "There is no doubt regarding the genesis of the rebellion of 1921. It was born out of police repression. Its chief cause was the excessive violence used by the authorities to suppress the Khilaphat movement, and not any *Jenmi-Kudiyan* conflict or dispute regarding mosque. When police atrocities became unbearable they gave up the vow of non-violence and decided to meet violence with violence itself."[2] The excesses committed by the police and the military in quelling the disturbances only served to strengthen the determination of the rebels and make the rebellion more fierce and widespread. It may be noted that the Mappilas even took to the manufacture of fire-arms in order to answer the violence of the police with violence.

1. *Kazhinja Kalam*, K. P. Kesava Menon, p. 116.
2. *Kazhinja Kalam*, K. P. Kesava Menon, p. 117.

In the early stages of the rebellion the Mappilas did no harm to members of other communities, but at a later stage the action of the police in enlisting the support of Hindu landlords and their men in their search for the rebel leaders made certain sections of the Mappila community turn against the Hindus. Some of the fanatics among the Mappilas took advantage of the situation to resort to forcible conversion and looting of Hindus. The Government took full advantage of the situation to give currency to highly exaggerated versions of anti-Hindu excesses committed by the Mappila rebels. A Resolution passed by the Congress Working Committee in September 1921 while placing on record "its sense of deep regret over the deeds of violence done by Mappilas in certain areas of Malabar" and condemning "the needless destruction of life resorted to by the government in the name of peace and order" warned the public against believing in the government and inspired versions. On the question of forcible conversions the Resolution quoted from a local Report as follows. "The families which have been reported to have been forcibly converted into Muhammadanism lived in the neighbourhood of Manjeri. It is clear that conversions were forced upon Hindus by a fanatic gang which was always opposed to the Khilaphat and Non-co-operation movement and there were only three cases so far as our information goes."[1] A report of Pandit Rishi Ram, an Arya Samaj worker, placed the number of conversions at 1766 and suggested that if proper statistics were collected from all the Relief Committees the number might well exceed 2,500. Writers sympathetic to the Malabar rebellion do not consider even this number as significantly large enough to prove the communal character of the upheaval. E.M.S. Namboothiripad points that "2,500 forced conversions in an area with 4 lakhs Hindus is very low indeed, if it is a communal riot!"[2] But he does not deny that the forced conversions which did take place were motivated by religious fanaticism or that a certain percentage of casualties should be so counted. However, he adds "one can and should, however, state explicitly that the main force behind the rebellion was not religious fanaticism which was simply a by-product of the rebellion."[3] Nevertheless, incidents like

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1. *History of Indian National Congress*, Vol. I, Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya, p. 216.
2. *The National Question in Kerala*, E. M. S. Namboothiripad, p. 233.
3. *The National Question in Kerala*, E. M. S. Namboothiripad, p. 233.

forcible conversions served to create a feeling of antipathy to the rebellion among the Hindus and indirectly helped the English to suppress it.

Political activity after the Rebellion.

During the period immediately following the end of the Malabar rebellion political activity in Malabar practically came to a standstill. Everywhere there was a strong feeling of hostility against Congressmen. The British authorities and several sections of the Hindu community believed that it was the open association of the Congress with Khilaphat work that inspired such serious disturbances as those of 1921. The Mappilas on the other hand nursed a grievance against the Congress as they felt that Congressmen after persuading them to join the Congress organisation deserted the field and left them to the mercy of the police and the military. Hence the political atmosphere in Malabar in the post-rebellion period was not congenial to any kind of activity under the auspices of the Congress. Moreover, those of the Congress leaders who had not been arrested during the rebellion were now prevented by the authorities from moving about freely and carrying on their work. An outstanding Congress leader like K. P. Kesava Menon was served with an order restricting his movements to the municipal limits of Calicut.

This period of lull in political activity, however, saw the birth of political journalism in Malabar. In March 1923 K. P. Kesava Menon and other Congress leaders raised subscriptions from the public and started the "*Mathrubhoomi*" from Calicut. Published at first only thrice a week the '*Mathrubhoomi*' later became a daily newspaper. It played an important part in spreading the message of the Congress among the masses. In October 1924 another newspaper named '*Al-Amin*' was also started from Calicut under the editorship of Muhammad Abdur Rahiman. This newspaper also played a notable part in fostering the spirit of nationalism among the people, particularly among the Mappilas.

About this time a movement sprang up in Malabar for the improvement of tenancy rights including security of tenure and stay of evictions. This movement gathered momentum under the leadership of Mannath Krishnan Nair, K. P. Raman Menon, G. Sankaran Nair and others. In the elections to the State Legislature, Mannath Krishnan Nair came out victorious.

He presented a bill for the improvement of tenancy rights, but owing to the opposition of the landowning classes it could not be passed into law. The Congress leaders and the tenants' leaders worked hand in hand. The open espousal of the *Kisan* cause by the Congress made the *Jenmis* bitter opponents of the organisation and most of them turned to the British Government for favours. An All Kerala Peasants' Conference was held at Ernakulam in April 1928 at which a resolution demanding tenancy legislation was passed. Side by side with the Peasants' Conference a State Peoples' Conference was also held at Ernakulam and resolutions were passed demanding steps for the reunification of Kerala and requesting the Indian National Congress to change its policy of non-intervention in the affairs of princely States.

The Civil Disobedience Movement

Kerala played a leading part in the movement for the boycott of the Simon Commission which toured the country early in 1928. Not only in big towns like Calicut but even in the remote villages thousands of people demonstrated shouting the slogan "Simon Commission, Go Back." In May 1928 the fourth All Kerala Provincial Conference met at Payyannur under the presidency of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and passed a resolution requesting the Congress leadership to adopt the goal of complete independence. The lead given by the Payyannur Conference generated great enthusiasm among the masses and gave a fresh spurt to Congress activity in Malabar.

A notable event of the period was the strike of the railway workers of South India which took place in July 1928. The strike which spread to Kerala was a complete success in Kozhikode, Badagara, Cannanore, Tellicherry and such other important centres. The Congress leaders like U. Gopala Menon gave active help to the striking workers and thus demonstrated the solidarity of the Congress organisation with the working class. The railway men's srike was a clear indication of the growing political consciousness of the working class.

The Salt Satyagraha which was launched by Mahatma Gandhi on 12th March 1930 had its echoes in Kerala. On 13th April a batch of Congress volunteers under the leadership of K. Kelappan started on foot from Calicut to Payyannur with the object of breaking the salt laws. The Satyagrahis received enthusiastic welcome all their way. When the Satyagraha

began, the authorities were at first indifferent, and deliberately refrained from arresting the Satyagrahis. But with the arrest of Mahatma Gandhi on 5th May affairs in Kerala took a different turn. A policy of repression began. On 12th May a strong police party attacked the volunteers who had assembled at the Calicut beach to break the salt laws. More than 30 Satyagrahis were injured in the incident. The Congress leaders like Muhammad Abdur Rahiman, P. Krishna Pillai and R. V. Sarma were severely manhandled. Such repressive measures far from breaking the morale of the Satyagrahis only helped to strengthen their determination. Krishna Pillai and R. V. Sarma exhibited uncommon heroism in defending the national flag which was forcibly seized. The police arrested all the leaders like Kelappan, Muhammad Abdur Rahiman, T. R. Krishnaswami Ayyar, K. Madhavan Nair, R. V. Sarma and P. Krishna Pillai and sentenced them each to 9 months rigorous imprisonment. The policy of arrests and repression only led to the intensification of the struggle in all parts of Malabar. Law breaking became almost a matter of daily occurrence. The picketing of toddy shops, boycott of foreign goods, and breach of salt laws went on everywhere. A remarkable feature of the movement was the predominant part played by students who had left schools and colleges in response to the call of the Congress. At Calicut the police made a lathi charge on students holding a peaceful meeting at the seashore. During this period an underground movement also took shape in Calicut and other parts of Malabar. The *"Congress Bullettin"* was printed secretly and distributed in Calicut town almost every day and in spite of their best efforts the police failed to trace the source of its publication. By March 1931 more than 500 people were in jail and thousands including women and children had been beaten up. But with the release of Mahatma Gandhi on 26th January, 1931 and the Gandhi-Irwin Pact of 4th March, 1931 the Civil Disobedience Movement was withdrawn. All the arrested persons in Kerala were released from jail.

The withdrawal of the Civil Disobedience Movement caused widespread dissatisfaction among the younger generation of Congressmen all over the country, and this was particularly marked in Kerala. The Gandhi-Irwin Pact had contained a provision permitting peaceful picketing of toddy shops. Congressmen in Kerala took advantage of this provision and organised widespread picketing of toddy shops. At this time the fifth Kerala Provincial Conference was held at Badagara

on May 5, 1931 under the presidency of J. M. Sen Gupta. The Conference passed a number of important resolutions. One of them demanded that temples should be thrown open to all Hindus irrespective of caste. Along with the Political Conference were also held such allied conferences as an All Kerala Students' Conference under the presidency of K. F. Nariman and a conference of released political prisoners under the presidency of T. Prakasam. The latter conference resolved to erect a memorial to the Mappilas who died in the Wagon Tragedy of November 1921. Though this resolution was never implemented, the resolution on temple entry passed by the Political Conference was soon followed up with direct action. The famous Guruvayur Satyagraha (1931-32) was a bold step taken by the Congress in pursuance of this resolution.[1]

In the meantime events were moving fast in Indian politics. The Round Table Conference held in London ended in failure and Mahatma Gandhi returned to India on 28th December, 1931. Even before the arrival of Gandhiji, Jawaharlal Nehru and other Congress leaders had been arrested. Mahatma Gandhi himself was arrested on 4th January, 1932. With this began the second Civil Disobedience Movement which swept the country like a hurricane. Kerala was in the vanguard of this movement also. Government decided to meet the situation by a series of repressive ordinances. The Congress was declared an unlawful organisation. Even in the face of such repressive measures thousands of people came forward to participate in the movement. They broke the bans on meetings and processions, boycotted foreign goods and liquor shops, and manufactured salt in defiance of law. It was at this time that the sixth Kerala Provincial Conference was held at Calicut on 15th September under the presidency of Samuel Aron. About 400 delegates from all parts of Malabar, Cochin and Travancore attended this Conference. All the four hundred delegates were arrested, but only 12 of them were convicted. Following the Provincial Conference, District, Taluk and Village conferences were also held all over Malabar. The 4th and the 21st days of each month were celebrated as Gandhi Day and Complete Independence Day respectively. Every Sunday was observed as Flag Day. Meetings and processions were held everywhere. In this connection special mention may be made of the fact that

1. Guruvayur Satyagraha has been dealt with in detail in the *Trichur District Gazetteer*, pp. 186-187.

a large number of women took active part in the second Civil Disobedience Movement and courted arrest. The Civil Disobedience Movement was formally withdrawn by Gandhiji in May, 1934.

The Cleavage between the Right and Left in Kerala Congress

The withdrawal of the Civil Disobedience Movement cast a gloom in Congress circles all over the country. The younger section of Congressmen began to show signs of impatience with the old leadership and look elsewhere for new and militant leadership. The month of May 1934 saw the birth of the Congress Socialist Party in India and with this there came about a definite cleavage between Right and Left within the Congress. In Kerala younger Congress leaders like P. Krishna Pillai and E.M.S. Namboothirippad who subscribed to the Communist ideology organised the Kerala Unit of the Congress Socialist Party and functioned as a separate group within the Kerala Congress. Several Congress workers who took active part in the Civil Disobedience Movement also joined the Socialist Party. The peasants' and workers' agitations that took place in the Kozhikode District and other parts of Malabar during this period and after were led by the Congress Socialists and other leftist elements within the Congress. Organisations of aided elementary school teachers and students also sprang up in various parts of Malabar under the leadership of the Congress Socialists. The active work carried on by the Congress Socialists and other Leftists among the workers, peasants, teachers and students increased their hold on the masses and they came to wield enormous influence within the Congress. Gradually the leadership of the Kerala Congress passed into the hands of the Congress Socialist group and an extremist group of Nationalist Muslims under the leadership of Muhammad Abdur Rahiman. The rift between the Right and Left wings in the Kerala Congress became serious at a meeting of the Kerala Provincial Congress Committee held at Shoranur in October 1934. A resolution passed at this meeting expressed lack of confidence in the efficiency of the Gandhian principles of truth and non-violence as weapons in the fight for *Swaraj*. After this meeting the rift between Right and Left became wider still. At the Seventh Kerala Provincial Conference held at Calicut in May 1935 under the presidency of S. A. Brelvi, the Editor of *"The Bombay Chronicle"*, the Leftists

proved themselves to be in a majority. The Conference passed a resolution demanding the abolition of princely states and formation of a United Kerala State. It also called upon the Government to concede the immediate demands of the peasants and workers. Most of the decisions of the Conference were arrived at not unanimously but by the majority vote of the Leftists in the face of Rightist opposition. After the Conference was over, compromise talks between the leaders of the Right and Left were held in the presence of S. A. Brelvi, Prakasam, and Sambamoorthy. The main terms of the compromise arrived at were that the Leftists and the Rightists were to have equal representation in the Working Committee of the Kerala Congress, that the General Secretary who should be a non-Leftist should have full authority to supervise the working of all departments under the Kerala Congress, and that such of the Leftists who were trade-union workers should act only in consultation with the General Secretary. The compromise document was signed by K. Kelappan, U. Gopala Menon, Kongattil Raman Menon, K. Madhavanar and P. K. Kunhisankara Menon on behalf of the Rightists and E. M. S. Namboothiripad, K. P. Gopalan and Manjunatha Rao on behalf of the Leftists. As a result of this compromise the Rightists got key posts in the Kerala Provincial Congress Committee. But the rivalry between the Left and Right did not end with it. In fact, it became only more acute day by day.

In 1936 the elections to the Madras Provincial Legislature took place under the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1935. In spite of the group rivalries within the Kerala Congress Congressmen presented a united front during the elections and almost all Congress candidates from Malabar were returned to the Provincial Legislature with overwhelming majorities. In July 1937 the first Congress Ministry was formed in Madras under the leadership of Rajagopalachari and one of the Congress leaders of Malabar, Kongattil Raman Menon, was included in the Ministry. About this time elections to the Malabar District Board were held and in this too Congress won a huge majority. K. Kelappan was elected the President of the Malabar District Board. The formation of the Congress Ministry and the electoral victories won by the organisation generated a great deal of enthusiasm among the people. It was also during this period that the Communists came to the fore as a distinct factor in Kerala Politics. Led

by such able leaders as P. Krishna Pillai and E. M. S. Namboothiripad they wielded considerable influence in the Congress organisation and this helped them to win over several Congressmen and Socialists to their camp. At the 9th Kerala Provincial Conference held at Calicut in April 1938 under the presidency of Jaya Prakash Narain a resolution was passed calling upon the Government to withdraw the ban on the Communist Party. By the end of 1939 the secret Kerala branch of Indian Communist Party was established and several members of the Congress joined the new party.

Political agitations during the Second World War

When the Second World War broke out in September 1939 the Congress Organisation in Kerala was under the control of the Leftists. The all-India Congress leadership decided to non-co-operate with the Government in its war efforts, but it was not in favour of any mass movement against the Government at that time. The Leftists, on the other hand, wanted such a movement to overthrow the alien Government. This brought the Congress leadership in Kerala into direct conflict with the Congress High Command. When the All India Congress Committee decided at its meeting in September 1940 to start individual Satyagraha under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, the Kerala Congress decided to fight the official policy of the National leadership. The Kerala Provincial Congress Committee called upon its units all over Kerala to organise an anti-Imperialist Day on September 15th. In response to this call meetings and demonstrations were held in all parts of Kerala and there occurred a series of clashes with the police in which many were arrested and several shot. The action of the Kerala Provincial Congress Committee in sponsoring the demonstrations of September 15 in defiance of the declared wishes of the Congress High Command led the latter to dissolve the Kerala Provincial Congress Committee and other Committees on which the Communists had a majority. An ad hoc committee was set up to re-organise the Kerala Congress. It was about this time that serious clashes developed between Congress Socialists in Kerala and the all-India Socialist leadership which resulted in the former going almost *en bloc* into the Communist Party in 1940. For about two years after this event there was no Socialist Party in Kerala as opposed to the Communist Party.

When individual Satyagraha was started by Gandhiji in October 1940 several Congress workers in Kerala participated in it and courted arrest. In the Quit India Movement of 1942 also the Congress workers of Malabar took an active part. During this period some of the young workers inside the Congress constituted themselves into a Socialist group under the leadership of Dr. K. B. Menon and played an active part in the movement. Meetings and processions were held everywhere in defiance of law. There was widespread picketing of schools, colleges, and courts of law. The authorities sought to meet the situation by having recourse to a policy of repression. This only drove the movement underground and led to violent disturbances. Communications were disrupted, telegraph wires were cut, Government records were burnt and police stations were raided. There were several such acts of sabotage in the various parts of the Kozhikode District. The most sensational episode was the Keezhariyur Bomb Case in which 27 persons including Dr. K. B. Menon were charge-sheeted. The charge against the accused was that they conspired to make bombs for the purpose of destroying Government buildings, railway tracks, bridges etc. Thirteen of the accused including Dr. Menon were sentenced to long terms of imprisonment and the rest were left free. During the Quit India Movement a secret journal called *"Swathantra Bharatam"* was regularly published for the purpose of disseminating news about the progress of the movement among Congress workers and keeping up their morale. About 690 persons were arrested from Malabar for having taken part in the Quit India Movement. It may be mentioned in this connection that it was during this period that the ban on the Communist Party was lifted and the Communists were allowed to function openly and freely. The Communists who believed that Russia's entry into the war had transformed what was once an "Imperialist War" into a "Peoples War" did not take part in the movement. This policy of the Communists created much bad blood between the Communists and the other political parties. But during the period when the Congress was in the wilderness the Communists did vigorous propaganda among the people, and laid the foundation of their future mass organisation.

Developments in the post-Independence period

During the post-Independence epoch there was a realignment of political forces in Malabar. The Communists had

emerged as a strong and well-knit political party. The Socialists left the Congress and became a separate party. Another group of Congress workers formed the Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party under the leadership of K. Kelappan. In the general election of 1951 the K.M.P.P. entered into a united front with the Communists. The Communist—K.M.P.P. alliance led to major electoral reverses for the Congress in Malabar. Of the thirty seats for Malabar in the Madras Legislature the Congress was able to win only four. The majority of the successful candidates belonged to the united front of the Communists and the K.M.P.P. By the time of the general elections of March 1957 the K.M.P.P. and the Socialist Party had coalesced to form the Praja Socialist Party. This party entered into an alliance with the Kerala Muslim League which under the leadership of Syed Abdur Rahiman Bafakki Tangal, K. M. Seethi Sahib, and C.H. Muhammad Koya wielded considerable influence in certain parts of Malabar, particularly in the Kozhikode District. The Congress and the Communist Party fought the 1957 elections independently. Though the Communists got only three seats from the Kozhikode District they emerged as the largest party in the new legislature and a Communist Government was formed in Kerala on 5th April, 1957. It functioned till 31st July, 1959. In the "Liberation struggle" or "*Vimochanasamaram*" which led to the exit of the Communist Government the Kozhikode District along with other parts of Kerala played its part. At Calicut, Badagara, Quilandi and other parts of the District hundreds of persons participated in the struggle and courted arrest. Government offices in the District including the Collectorate were picketed by volunteers belonging to the Congress, the P.S.P., and the Muslim League. One of the chief incidents of the "Liberation Struggle" in the District was a lathi-charge made by the Police on a crowd of people who had gathered in Calicut to protest against the arrest of the P.S.P. leaders Dr. K. B. Menon and Amul Desai. Many such incidents took place in other parts of the District also. In the General Elections that took place early in 1960 the District returned to the State Legislature seventeen candidates belonging to the Congress-P.S.P.-Mus'im League alliance, and only one candidate belonging to the Communist Party.[1]

1. For details of the results of the general elections of 1957 and 1960 See Chapter XVIII.

Cultural contributions of the modern period

We may conclude this study with a brief account of the cultural contributions of the District in the modern period. It is in the field of Malayalam language and literature that Kozhikode has made the most significant cultural contributions. The District is famous for its folk songs or ballads known as *Vadakkan Pattukal*. The most popular folk songs are those which celebrate the exploits of Tacholi Mepayil Kunju Otenan, "the Robinhood of North Malabar". The original Tacholi ballad describing one of Otenan's exploits has been extremely popular and several ballads have since been composed in the same metre regarding the deeds of other heroes. Thus, there is a ballad which celebrates the exploits of the Kunjali Marakkars, another which commemorates the rebellion of Pazhassi Raja, and a third relating to Tipu's invasion. The Mappila outbreaks of the 19th and 20th centuries have also been celebrated in folk songs which are sung even today by the Mappilas of the District. The most important feature of these folk songs is that its language is ordinary colloquial Malayalam, not contaminated by verbal inflections and Sanskrit expressions.

In the latter half of the 18th century the Zamorin's family produced the famous Manorama Tampuratti (1760-1828), who was noted for her erudition and scholarship. She was so called because even before she was 12 years old she had mastered the great commentary on the *'Siddhanta Kaumudi'* called Manorama.[1] During the period of the Mysore invasions the Tampuratti, along with other members of the Zamorin's family, sought asylum in Travancore and lived at Enakkad till her return to Malabar in 1800. Manorama is not known to have written any important work. But the few verses in Sanskrit that are attributed to her by tradition show that she was a good poetess. During her stay in Travancore the Tampuratti and the Dharma Raja exchanged verses of mutual admiration. In the beginning of the 19th century the Zamorin's family produced another great scholar in Manaveda, who wrote the *Vilasini* commentary on the *Sukasandesa* of Lakshmidasa. He has also written a commentary on the *Ramayana Champu* of Bhoja. In the course of the century the District produced several other important literary figures in Malayalam. Chengalathu Kunhiraman Menon (1858-1936) who founded the

1. *The Zamorins of Calicut,* K. V. Krishna Iyer, p. 310.

journal *'Kerala Patrika'* was a notable writer of the period. He was helped in his journalistic activities by the famous Vengayil Kunhiraman Nayanar (1861-1914), who was known to the world of letters by the pen-name 'Kesari'. T. M. Appu Nedungadi (1863-1934), the author of the *'Kundalatha'*, which is the first novel to be written in the Malayalam language, also lived at Calicut during this period. He was one of those who helped Kunhiraman Menon in founding the Kerala Patrika. Manavikrama Ettan Tampuran (1845-1915) wrote several works in Sanskrit and Malayalam. Kadattanat Udayavarma Tampuran (1865-1907) was also a notable writer of the period, who gathered around him a large circle of scholars and poets. A shining literary luminary of the District in the modern period was the young prodigy V. C. Balakrishna Panikkar (1889-1915). During his short life he earned a high reputation as a journalist, prose-writer and poet of distinction. There are very few poets in Malayalam who have composed such beautiful poems at so young an age as he did. Two of the most important of his works, *"Oru Vilapam"* and *"Viswarupam"*, have taken their lasting place in Malayalam poetry.

Prominent among the modern prose writers of the District was O. Chandu Menon (1847-1899) who was a novelist par excellence. He was the author of the two famous novels, *"Indulekha"* and *"Sarada"*. These two novels give us a graphic picture of contemporary social life in Kerala. *'Indulekha'* was a protest against the forced marriages of Nair girls to Namboothiris. It was so much appreciated by Dumergue, the Collector of Malabar, that he translated it into English. The writings of Chandu Menon were characterised by simplicity, grace and humour. He excelled in the portrayal of amazing situations and humorous characters and his descriptions of men and things had a special charm of their own. Another great literary celebrity of the District in recent times was M. R. Nair (1903-1942) who became famous in literary circles by his pen name 'Sanjayan'. He was one of those writers in Malayalam who made a mark in the field of humour and satire. He was also a vigorous prose writer and poet in the language. Among the living literary celebrities of the District may be mentioned K. P. Kesava Menon, the Editor of the *Mathrubhoomi* and the former Vice-President of the Kerala Sahitya Akademi.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

POPULATION

Total population according to sub-divisions.

The total population of the Kozhikode District according to the 1951 Census is 2,065,284 while the provisional population figure of the 1961 Census is 2,619,283. In both the Censuses the percentage of females to the total population is slightly higher than the percentage of males. The following table gives the sex-war figures of population for the District as per the 1951 and 1961 Censuses.

Rural and Urban population
(Sex-wise)
(*In lakhs*)

	1951 *Census*		1961 *Census* (*Provisional figures*)	
	Rural	*Urban*	*Rural*	*Urban*
Male ..	8.90	1.34	10.84	2.16
Female ..	9.06	1.34	11.05	2.14
Total ..	17.96	2.68	21.89	4.30

The Taluk-war provisional population of the District as per the 1961 Census with sex-war details is given below.

Taluk-war provisional population figures (1961 Census)

Sl. No.	*Name of Taluk*	*Population*		
		Total	*Male*	*Female*
			(In thousands)	
1	Kozhikode ..	659.9	333.2	326.7
2	Tirur ..	565.3	271.8	293.5
3	Ernad ..	523.6	260.1	263.5
4	Quilandi ..	365.6	180.7	184.9
5	Badagara ..	319.8	156.6	163.2
6	South Wynad ..	185.0	97.9	87.1
	Total ..	2,619.2	1,300.3	1,318.9

It may be stated that in the Censuses of both 1951 and 1961 the Kozhikode District gets the first rank in population. The proportion of the population of the District to the total population of the State is 15.52%.

As for density of population per sq. mile, Kozhikode gets the 6th rank among the Districts of the State. In 1951 the density was 809 but according to the provisional figures of the 1961 census it is 1,019. Considered Taluk-wise, all the Taluks in the District except Ernad and South Wynad have a density which is higher than that of the District as a whole. The following table shows the variation of density in each of the Taluks from 1921 to 1961.

Variation of Density 1921-1961

Sl. No.	*Name of Taluk*	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961 (*Provisional*)
1	Badagara	796	922	994	1,235	1,507
2	Quilandi	639	741	798	992	1,242
3	Kozhikode	767	918	1,074	1,363	1,742
4	Tirur	1,139	1,319	1,466	1,716	2,019
5	Ernad	303	344	390	464	600
6	South Wynad	103	112	129	206	347

Growth of Population and Connected Problems.

As in the case of all other Districts of Kerala the total population of Kozhikode has also recorded an appreciable increase during the last few decades. It is seen from the provisional figures of the 1961 Census that the total population increased from 2,065,284 to 2,619,283 during the period 1951-61. The variation in the population during this decade is 553,999 and the percentage increase 26.82. Apart from the general causes of the growth of population such as the excess of births over deaths, improvement in public health and sanitation etc., one important factor that has contributed to the increase in the population of Kozhikode has been the large scale immigration of people into the District from other parts of the State and even from outside. It was noted even during the Census of 1951 that there was a marked increase in the population of some of the Taluks as a consequence of the

large influx of immigrants. While the population of the Kozhikode Taluk had increased by 26.9 per cent during the decade 1941-51 that of the erstwhile Wynad Taluk which includes the present South Wynad had increased by 59.2 per cent. It was found that the hilly interior areas in Kozhikode, Badagara, Quilandi and Ernad Taluks with their large areas of virgin lands had attracted a considerable immigrant population from Travancore-Cochin. In Wynad Taluk the increase was found appreciable particularly because there was a colonisation scheme here and also because it had vast areas of undeveloped lands which held out a great attraction to immigrants as a result of the improvement in communication and medical facilities in the area in recent times. The *Census Report* of 1951 also attributes the increase in the population of the erstwhile Malabar District to the fall in emigration and to the return of earlier emigrants on a large scale from such countries as Burma, Ceylon and Malaya. The tendency for increase in population that was recorded during the 1951 Census has been kept up during the decade 1951-61 as the results of the 1961 Census show. During this decade too the influx of immigrants from other parts of the State and outside into this District continued uninterrupted. The reports received from the Tahsildars of the various Taluks reveal that families from outside have migrated *en masse* to this District in the recent past. It is reported that about 1,000 immigrant families have settled down in Badagara Taluk, 1,500 in Quilandi,[1] 5,000 in Kozhikode[2] and 12,500 in South Wynad. These immigrants belong to all communities and creeds, though the Christians seem to predominate among them. While some of the immigrants have come from Coorg, South Canara, and such other adjoining places in the Mysore and Madras States, the vast majority have come from the neighbouring Districts of Palghat and Cannanore and the erstwhile Travancore-Cochin area. A large number of immigrants are engaged in cultivation in the hill tracts. Hundreds are also employed as paid Mazdoors or workmen in the tea and coffee estates of South Wynad. This influx of immigrants has in recent years radically changed the picture of socio-economic life in the District. The immigrants are a highly

1. The immigrant families have settled mainly in the hilly and unoccupied areas in Kayanna, Killanur and Perambra Amsoms of Quilandi Taluk.

2. Most of the families have settled in Puduppalli, Kedavur, Koodathei and Tiruvampadi Amsoms which are hilly places.

industrious and enterprising people and they have contributed not a little to the economic development of the region by their unremitting exertions. The influx of immigrants has, however, resulted in the elimination of the private forests in these parts, and created a new problem for the authorities.

Distribution of population between urban and rural areas

The vast majority of people in the District live in the rural areas. According to the 1951 Census out of a total population of 2,065,284 persons 1,797,062 live in rural areas while 268,222 live in the urban areas. The following table gives the Taluk-wise figures of the rural and urban population as per the Census of 1951.

Taluk-war distribution of Rural and Urban Population *1951*

Name of Taluk	*Rural*			*Urban*		
	Total	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*
Badagara	231,244	117,143	124,101	20,964	10,491	10,473
Quilandi	262,882	130,555	132,327	29,001	14,016	14,985
Kozhikode	357,648	178,099	179,549	158,724	80,069	78,655
Ernad	394,214	194,318	199,896	10,357	5,042	5,315
Tirur	431,374	209,474	221,900	49,176	24,405	24,771
South Wynad	109,700	60,694	49,006	..	..	..
Total	1,797,062	890,283	906,779	268,222	134,023	134,199

The figures of the rural and urban population according to the Provisional Census figures of 1961[1] are as follows:—

	(In lakhs)
Rural	21.89
Urban	4.30
Total	26.19

The general increase that was noticed in the total population of the District during the last few decades may be seen in the case of both the rural and urban population also. In the erstwhile Malabar District the increase in rural population during the decade 1941-51 was 19.6%. At the same time the urban population also registered an increase. The 1961 provisional figures also show continued increase in the urban and

1. Taluk-wise figures are not yet available.

rural population of the District. The growth of population in the towns of Calicut, Pantalayini, Badagara, Feroke, Manjeri, Tanur and Trikkandiyur since the turn of this century has been marked. The table given at Appendix I to this Chapter shows the provisional population of each of these towns in 1961 and the variation in population in them at the six enumerations held from 1901 to 1951. It may be noted from the table that in the 1961 Census the increase in population has been kept up in the case of all towns except Pantalayini. It is interesting to note that during the decades 1931-41 and 1941-51 the population of Pantalayini had increased by more than 100 per cent. However, during the decade 1951-61 the population of this town is seen to have decreased by about 40 per cent. But Pantalayini is an exception. The population of other towns in the District has shown much increase during the decade 1951-61. It is significant that Badagara has more than doubled its population during the decade 1951-61. Not only have most of the old towns registered an increase in their population during the period 1951-61, but the number of towns in the District has also increased steadily. While in 1951 there were only 7 towns in this District in 1961 the number has increased to 17[1]. The jump in the urban population of the District during the period 1951-61 is partly due to this factor. Another cause of the growth in urban population has been the steady movement of people from rural areas into the towns in search of urban amenities and better educational and medical facilities. The setting up of new industries ensuring steady demand for labour and the increased scope for non-agricultural occupations not only for professional services but also for other miscellaneous earners like domestic services and daily casual labourers of various kinds have also helped the growth of the urban population. In the case of Badagara it may be noted that it has recently been upgraded to a Municipal town and

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1. Beypore, Kadalundi, Pudiyangadi, Parappanangadi, Nellikode, Olavana, Elathur, Paryancheri, Kommeri and Edakkad have come to be classified as towns as per the results of the 1961 Census. In 1951 all municipal towns, conservancy towns of the Travancore-Cochin area and certain Panchayat Boards of the Malabar area were treated as towns. But in 1961, while all municipal towns and cantonments were treated as towns, among other towns it is only those places with a population of not less than 5,000 persons and a density of not less than 1,000 persons per sq.mile having at least 75 per cent of the population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits that were normally treated as towns.

a full fledged Arts and Science College has also sprung up in its suburbs. Apart from this fact the trade and commerce of the town have also developed in recent years and this has also increased its attraction for people.

No appreciable drift in population from towns to villages seems to have taken place in the District. On the other hand the trend seems to be in the opposite direction i.e., from villages to towns. The towns have been growing in number and in size and consequently the question of large movements from them to rural areas does not arise. They also possess an immense capacity to absorb more population and provide means of livelihood for them. The figures of the growth of urban population in the District according to the 1951 and 1961 Censuses leave no room for doubt in regard to the accelerated *pace of urbanisation in the District.*

Distribution of Population on the Basis of Mother Tongue and Bilingualism

The following table gives the distribution of population according to language in the Kozhikode District at the 1951 Census:—

Language	*Persons*
Malayalam	1,995,352
Tamil	13,449
Hindi	671
Kannada	6,859
Telugu	4,357
Marathi	766
Konkani	1,536
Gujarathi	1,543
Others	40,751

It is clear from the above table that Malayalam is the predominant language spoken by the people of the District. Tamil is the language which is next in importance. It is spoken mostly by the East Coast merchants, Tamil Brahmins, and estate labourers. In Calicut city which is a commercial centre there are also a few merchants who speak Arabic, Hindi, Gujarathi and Marathi while in South Wynad Kannada is spoken by the estate workers who have come from the adjoining areas in Mysore State. The existence of a small minority among Muslims who speak Hindustani (old form of Urdu) may also

be noted in this connection. Their ancestors came here as officers (Military and Civil) and Munshis (Clerks and interpreters). They reside in Calicut, Badagara, Tirur and other towns in small numbers. Those who have languages other than Malayalam as their mother tongue can generally understand and speak in Malayalam. The extent of bilingualism in this District is not considerable enough to deserve any detailed analysis.

Differences in Dialect within the same Linguistic Group

Judged by differences in dialect within Malayalam, Kerala is generally divided into three regional Dialects viz., the Southern Dialect, the Middle Dialect and the Northern Dialect. The Kozhikode District falls within the area where the Middle Dialect is in vogue. The chief feature of this Dialect is that it contains a large admixture of Sanskrit words. However, there are differences between the colloquial Malayalam spoken by certain classes of people in this District and the literary Malayalam. The colloquial Malayalam spoken by the illiterate sections among the Hill Tribes and the Mappilas of the District differs considerably from literary Malayalam. The language of the Paniyas is a dialect of Malayalam with some traces of Tamil terminations or words. The Edanadan Chettis speak a mixture of Kannada and Malayalam. The Malayalam spoken by the Kurumbars also contains a slight admixture of Kannada. The language of the Mappila folk songs of the District is ordinary colloquial Malayalam which is free from verbal inflections.

Scripts used

The script that is in vogue in the District is the modern Malayalam script. This script has developed out of the *Grandha* or *Arya Ezhuthu* which was popularised by Tunchat Ezhuthachan who lived in the 17th century. However, the oldest script that was current in the Kozhikode District as elsewhere in Kerala was *Vattezhuthu.* The Ezhavas till the 18th Century were making use of *Vattezhuthu* and not *Grandha.* It was in the wake of the increasing popularity of Grandha script that *Vattezhuthu* gradually declined[1].

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1. The subject of scripts has been discussed in greater detail in the *Trivandrum District Gazetteer*, p.p 261-262.

RELIGION AND CASTE

The following table shows the distribution of population on the basis of religion in the Kozhikode District according to the Census of 1951.

Distribution of population on the basis of religion

Name of religion	*Number of persons*	*Percentage to the total population*
Hindus	1,135,651	54.99
Muslims	867,559	42.01
Christians	61,240	2.96
Others	834	0.04
Total	2,065,284	100.00

It will be clear from the foregoing figures that the Hindus constitute the bulk of the population of the District. The Muslims come next and the Christians thereafter. It may be noted in this connection that of all the Districts of Kerala, Kozhikode has the highest percentage of Muslims and the lowest percentage of Christians in its population. The largest number of Scheduled Tribes in the State is also in this District.

The scope of this Chapter does not warrant a detailed account of each community, caste and tribe in the District. In fact, such an account is not possible in the absence of reliable population figures of all the castes and sub-castes. As information pertaining to the population figures of the different castes and sub-castes was not collected during the last few Censuses, we have to confine ourselves mainly to a general discussion of the traditional social structure, the customs and manners of people who profess the main religions, and the nature of inter-caste and inter-communal relations. However, the Scheduled Tribes and the Mappilas who occupy a more prominent place in the life of this District than of others shall be given fuller treatment.

Hindus

The Hindu community in the District as elsewhere in India is organised on the basis of castes and sub-castes. The broad divisions of the community are (1) Brahmins, (2) *Antaralajati* or Intermediate castes including, Kshatriyas and Ambalavasis, (3) Sudras including Nairs, (4) Tiyyas, Kammalas or artisans and (5) the aboriginal tribes.

The Namboothiris form a distinct group among the Brahmins, though their number is not considerable. They were the custodians of the *Vedas*. They are divided into exogamous *gotrams*. They were mostly landlords. It was their belief that all land in Malabar was originally vested in them. There were various sub-divisions among the Namboothiris such as *Adhyans, Visishta Namboothiris, Jatimatrakkar, Sapthas* and *Papis*. The *Tampurakkals* formed the highest class among the *Adhyans*, and as such among the *Namboothiris*. They were considered to have reached a stage at which *Yagams* or sacrifices were unnecessary and so they never performed them. The *Visishta Namboothiris* are sub-divided into *Agnihotris* and *Bhattatiris*. The former performed the *Yagams* while the latter took to the study of philosophy, logic etc. The *Samanya* (ordinary) *Namboothiris* were not entitled to perform *Yagams* but they studied the *Vedas* and performed the duties of priests. The *Jatimatrakkar* or bare *Namboothiris* include the *Ashta Vaidyans* or the eight families of hereditary physicians. Being surgeons who shed blood, they are *Othillathavar* (those who are not allowed to recite the *Vedas*) as opposed to the *Othullavar* (those who are permitted to recite the *Vedas*). The *Sapthas* and *Papis* also belong to the class of *Othillathavar*. The *Namboothiris* have been an orthodox community. They used to live in the seclusion of their *Illams* attending to their traditional duties. They also used to observe the rules of caste rigidly. For long they were less affected than any other caste except perhaps the very lowest by the influence of Western civilisation. But in recent times the community has been forging ahead. They have become less conservative in outlook and manners. Many of them have taken to English education and have entered the learned professions. Some have become traders and industrialists as well.

In addition to the *Namboothiri Brahmins* there are two immigrant Brahmin castes, *Embrandiris* and *Pattars* from Tulu and Tamil areas. They are distinct in race, customs and appearance from the *Namboothiris* and are mostly employed in temples and as cooks in *Namboothiri* and royal houses. They are looked down upon by the Namboothiris as inferiors.

The *Antaralajati* or intermediate castes include the Kshatriyas, the Ambalavasis and the Samantans. The Kshatriyas form only a very small section of the population but they occupy a high rank in society as they were once the rulers

of the land. Among the Kshatriya families of the District may be mentioned the royal families of Beypore, Parappanad, Kurumbranad and Kadattanad.

The Ambalavasis include the Pushpakans, Chakkiars, Tiyyattu Nambiars, Poduvals, Pisharotis, Warriers, Marars, etc. Almost all these castes perform some duty or other connected with the temple such as preparing garlands, drumming at the time of worship, lighting the oil lamps, sweeping the inner parts, cleaning vessels etc.

Samantan is the generic name used to indicate a group of castes which formed the aristocracy of Malabar, particularly of the Kozhikode District. It includes such divisions as Eradi, Vellodi, Thirumulpad, Nedungadi etc. Eradi is the caste to which belongs the Zamorin Raja of Calicut. The Raja of Valluvanad is a Vellodi. Thirumulpad is the title of such petty chieftains as the Karanamulpad of Manjeri and the Thirumulpad of Nilambur. The ladies of this caste are called Koilpads or Koilammas. It may be noted in this connection that the Samantans are now regarded only as a superior section of the high caste Nairs.

The Nairs form the most characteristic community of the District, though not the most numerous. They once formed the martial class of Malabar. The latter half of the 18th century saw the decline in the military status of the Nairs and the vast majority of them took to new occupations like agriculture. There have been various castes and sub-castes among the Nairs. The *Malabar District Gazetteer* gives the names of several of these sub-divisions[1]. It is not necessary for the purpose of our study to enumerate all these sub-divisions here as these have now practically vanished.

Below the Nairs come what were regarded as the lower castes among the Hindus. First may be mentioned the Tiyyas who constitute a considerable bulk of the Hindu population of the District. The traditional occupation of the Tiyyas was the planting and tapping of coconut tree. But this occupation was gradually given up and many of the Tiyyas became agri-culturists, traders, shop-keepers etc. They also attained a considerable position as land owners. The Tiyyas of the District form a most progressive community. Many of the members of this community have risen to the highest positions

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, pp. 117-123.

in the learned professions. It may be noted in this connection that like the Nairs the Tiyyas also served in the military in the past. Barbosa who visited the District in the early part of the 16th century has recorded this. There are also several ballads or folk songs celebrating the exploits of some of the heroes of this community and these are sung in different parts of the District even today. One of the most well-known of such Tiyya heroes was Aromal Chevakar who is assigned to the 12th Century A.D. and who figures prominently in the Puthooram Pattukal. His sister Unniarcha is almost a legendary heroine of Kerala.

Below the Tiyyas there are the Mukkuvans, a caste of fishermen. Then there are the Kammalas or the artisan classes of the District. They are divided into five sub-castes viz., Thattans (goldsmiths), Perinkollans (blacksmiths), Musaris (braziers), Asaris (carpenters), and Chempottis (copper smiths). Each of the Kammala castes forms an endogamous community and each such community is itself divided into several groups called *Kiriyams*.

Scheduled Castes and Tribes

The Scheduled Castes and particularly the Scheduled Tribes form a significant element in the Hindu population of the District. According to the 1951 Census the total population of Scheduled Castes in Kozhikode is 154,096 out of which 76,118 are males and 77,978 are females. The total population of the Scheduled Tribes is 30,016 out of which 15,784 are males and 14,232 are females. The Scheduled Castes may be found distributed all over the District. But the Scheduled Tribes are found mostly in South Wynad Taluk and to some extent also in the Nilambur area of Ernad Taluk. The most important of the Scheduled Tribes found in the District are (1) Chettis (Edanadan Chettis, Wynadan Chettis and Mandatan Chettis), (2) Kurichiyas, (3) Mulla Kurumbars, (4) Urali or Vettu Kurumbars, (5) Kunduvatiyans, (6) Karimpalans, (7) Kadars, (8) Pathiyans, (9) Uridavans, (10) Thachanad Muppans, (11) Kanaladis, (12) Adiyans, (13) Paniyas, (14) Pulayans, (15) Jen Kurumbars or Ten Kurumbars, (16) Kattunayakans, (17) Aranadans or Ernadans (18) Vettuvans and (19) Malakkarans. The tribes referred to above as items (1) to (16) are the aboriginal tribes of the Wynad area. Their chief habitat is the eastern villages of the region. The largest number of Kurichiyas are found in this area. But a few of them are

found in the Badagara and Kozhikode Taluks also. Similarly the Paniyans are found mostly in the Wynad region, though a small number of them inhabit the eastern parts of Ernad Kozhikode and Badagara Taluks. Kunduvatiyans are a minority tribe found in Puthadi and Purakkadi *Amsoms* of South Wynad Taluk. Karimpalans are a characteristic tribe of North Malabar and are found in all the foot hills of the Wynad area. The Kadar community is found in the Thonder and Mangalasseri Desoms of North Wynad in Cannanore District. Pathiyans are a small community inhabiting the eastern Wynad. Uridavans, Tachanad Muppans and Kanaladis are very few in number. A few families of Thachanad Muppans are said to exist in Nilambur. They are believed to have migrated to Wynad from Nilambur. Adiyans are found in Pulpally Desom of South Wynad Taluk, and in the Vemom, Tirunelli and Kuppathode Desoms of North Wynad. Pulayans are found in some parts of the area and number only a few hundreds. Jen Kurumbars or Ten Kurumbars and Kattunayakans are found on the slopes of the Wynad hills. A few families of the latter tribe are found in the Karulai Forest Range in Ernad Taluk also. The chief habitat of Aranadans or Ernadans is Nilambur in Ernad Taluk. Vettuvans, like Malakkarans, are found in the Kozhikode and Ernad hills.

Each of the Hill Tribes has its own importance in the economic and social life of the District.[1] The Edanadan Chettis, a tribe who migrated from Coorg into Wynad, are agriculturists by profession. There are both Saivites and Vaishnavites among them. The Wynadan Chettis are also an agricultural tribe whose ancestors are believed to have come from Dharapuram in Coimbatore. They are a hard-working and law-abiding people. There are five families among them which have been recognised as heads of the community. The Wynadan Chettis have a partiality for hunting, and they stage every year a tiger hunt with great eclat. The Mandatan Chettis who are immigrants from the Nilgiris District are also agriculturists. As far as possible, they resort to independent farming.

1 The *Report on the Socio-Economic Conditions of the Aboriginal Tribes in the Province of Madras* by Dr. Aiyyappan gives a succinct account of the Hill Tribes of the District. Attention is also invited to the *Tribes of Kerala* (1962) by A. A. D. Luiz.

The Kurichiyas are the first agricultural tribe from the plains of Malabar who colonised Wynad. They are aristocrats among the Tribes occupying as they do the highest social position among the Wynad tribes. They are skilled bow-men and played a heroic role in the Pazhassi Revolt at the beginning of the 19th century. Till recently they had their own lands. But most of them have been dispossessed of their holdings by the money-lenders and petty traders from the plains. The Kurichiyas follow the joint family system. A typical joint family consists of as many as forty to fifty members. The members of such joint families live in five or six large sized houses in a cluster. The Kurichiya territory is divided into several *Nads*, each of which is under a headman. All communal disputes are settled by a council of elders presided over by the headman of the *Nad*. The Kurichiyas practise both wet cultivation and dry or *punam* cultivation. They are averse to manual labour and seldom work as hired labourers. They are so timid by disposition that they generally avoid making purchases in the open market and buy all their necessaries from the visiting pedlars who sell things at exorbitant rates. Money accounts confuse the Kurichiyas and they make their payments without questioning. Because of this timidity and ignorance many of them have become heavily indebted to the money-lenders of the small towns of the Wynad area.

The Mulla Kurumbars are also an agricultural tribe. They practise both paddy cultivation on wet lands and *punam* cultivation on the slopes of the hills. They are very fond of hunting and are good shots with bows and arrows. Like the Kurichiyas, they also live in large joint families. The Urali Kurumbars are the chief artisan tribe of Wynad. They are skilled blacksmiths, carpenters, potters, and basket-makers. Some of them are also employed for felling trees by the Forest Department and local farmers. The Kunduvatiyans are also agriculturists who engage themselves mainly in paddy cultivation. Communal disputes among them are settled by a council of elders known as 'Muppans'. The Karimpalans engage themselves in *punam* cultivation. They also work in the forests as axe men. It is a practice with them to collect wild pepper. The majority of the Kadars live on hill cultivation while some of them work as *coolies*. Like the Kurichiyas they are excellent bow-men and experts in archery and played an important part in the Pazhassi Revolt. Caste disputes among them are settled at a meeting of seven elders of leading

families. In recent times the Kadars are being increasingly employed as labourers in estates. The Pathiyans are a small agricultural community believed to have migrated into Wynad from Mysore. They were originally Jains and even to-day Jain priests officiate at their marriages. Uridavans are also immigrants from Mysore and they engage themselves in agricultural operations. Their houses are not in groups but scattered. They have a headman called *Ejman* for each *desam* and all caste disputes in the community are settled by him. The Kanaladis are a very small community of oracles and fire-walkers. The Adiyans are an agricultural tribe who work in the fields. Their headman is called *'Muppan'*, a title conferred by the landlords.

The Paniyas are the most numerous of the Hill Tribes of Wynad. Local tradition records that they were the most ancient inhabitants of Wynad and that the Goundan landlords who migrated from Mysore overpowered, captured, and enslaved them. They are mainly agricultural serfs or semi slaves attached to the land and the *jenmis*. At one time they were actually bought and sold along with the land for a few Rupees per head. Though the custom has now disappeared the Paniyas are still slaves in fact. Age-long serfdom has made them a demoralised community. They are however a hardy people who by their unremitting exertions have made the most significant contribution to the development of the once Malaria-ridden Wynad into its present state of prosperity. Paniya labour is quite indispensable for agricultural operations in Wynad, and has come to stay as a permanent feature of the agricultural map of the area. The traditional practice for the recruitment of Paniya labour is to advance money (usually Rs. 25 or 30 per family) at the time of the Valliyur Kavu festival. The families who receive such advance from landlords are expected to work under them for the whole year The Paniyas have no attachment either to the soil or to the employer and hence employment of Paniya labourers creates its own problems for the employers. If the employers do not treat them well, they usually abscond. Very few Paniyas own lands and do work as independent farmers. They are also excellent mahouts. Like the Kurichiyas the Paniyas too are confused by accounts and are often duped in the bazaar.

The Pulayans of Wynad who may be distinguished from the Pulayars of the plains are field labourers. Only very few

among them do independent farming. They are employed chiefly by the Mappilas as hired labourers. The Jen Kurumbars or Ten Kurumbars have extraction of honey as their important occupation. They live on the slopes of the hills and the caste headman is called '*Muthali*'. A large number of them are employed as elephant mahouts in the Forest Department. The Kattunayakans are a very backward and a primitive tribe employed as labourers by the Goundans and Nairs of Wynad. They are nomadic by instinct and often shift their residence. Their group leader is called *Hettan*. The Ernadans are also a primitive tribe. They are short in stature, and have curly hair and broad noses. They are good hunters and use bows and arrows. They extract an oil from the python which is said to cure leprosy. They gather minor forest produce like Cheenikai or soap nuts and honey. Besides they make ropes for elephants with a wild bark. Many of them are employed as field labourers by Mappilas or for felling trees in the Nilambur forests. The Malakkarans are a tribe of jungle cultivators and hunters and are often employed as forest watchers and elephant catchers. Like the Kurichiyas they consider themselves as a superior tribe. Thus each of the Hill Tribes has a distinct individuality of its own, and adds colour and variety to the life of the District.

Hindu Beliefs and Practices

The Hindus of the District worship all the major Gods and Goddesses of the Hindu pantheon as well as several minor deities. Vishnu and Siva are the major Gods worshipped. The *Kshetrams* or *Ambalams* are dedicated to these major deities while the *Kavus* are dedicated to the minor deities like Ayyappan, Subramonia, Bhadrakali, Hanuman, Garuda, etc., and malignant demons like Kuttichathan, Mundian, Gulikan, etc.

The temples of the District and of Kerala are in many respects different from those found on the East Coast. Elaborate rules prescribed by the *Sastras* are followed in their construction. The *Srikovil* (*sanctum sanctorum*) containing the idol is a small rectangular building. The entrance is at the East. From the architectural or structural point of view there is not much that is unusually attractive about them in so far as the stone pillars, massive pyramidal *gopurams* and elaborate details of Dravidian architecture are missing. In every temple daily *pujas* are offered to the deity. The number

of such *pujas* vary from one to five depending on the importance of each temple. Congregation at worship is not much common. The worshippers in most cases come with offerings of flowers, ghee, rice, money, etc. The *Kavu* dedicated to the Bhadrakali is typical of the West Coast. It is mostly a structure of wood, and sometimes the idol stands in the open with no shelter except that afforded by the branches of some big tree. In the *Kavus* the deities are propitiated by offerings similar to those offered in *Ambalams*, but in the past some of them were propitiated with the sacrifice of fowls and sometimes of goats, though this has now become defunct. The *Kavus* have their own oracles called *Velichappads*. There are also temples in the District dedicated to such deities as Ayyappan, Hanuman and Garuda. The Chamravattathu Ayyappan Kavu, Hanuman Kavu near Tirunavai, and Garudan Kavu in Vettat Pudiyangadi may be mentioned in this connection. Temples dedicated to inferior deities like Mariamman and Mundian may be seen near Sultan's Battery and other eastern parts of the District.

The aborigines living in the forest regions of Wynad are highly God-fearing. The Kurichiyas have their family deities. They worship Gods like *"Malakari"*, *"Bhagavathi"*, *"Munnam Daivam"*, etc. along with Sri Krishna, Siva and other major Hindu deities. Fruits and coconuts are used in the conduct of *pujas*. They never allow members of the advanced communities to enter the precincts of their temples, lest their sanctity should be violated. The Kurichiyas attribute the failure of crops, the diseases of their children and cattle, and most other ills to the wrath of the tribal Gods. The Kadars worship the God *Malakari* (a manifestation of Siva as hunter) besides another deity *Kariyathan*. The Gods of the Paniyas are *"Oliyampan"* and *"Kooli"*. On important days the Paniyas assemble before the idol and dance using swords which cause injury to their bodies. They believe that the wounds would be cured without any kind of treatment. For a group of families a house is set apart by the Kurumbars for worship. *"Kandamvilli"*, *"Poothalam Kalliar'*, and *"Panam Kunnan"* are the deities of the Kurumbars. The name of the chief God of the Kattunayakans is *Masti* and that of the Malakkarans *Maladevan*. The chief deities of the Uridavans are *Karinkali* and *Pakam Daivam*.

Serpent worship has also been widely prevalent in the District. A serpent *Kavu* (*Nagattan Kavu*) was at one time an integral part of almost all Namboothiri and Nair houses. The serpent is even today regarded as a divine creature and no one kills it. Propitiation of *Nagâs* (serpents) is deemed essential to ensure the prosperity of every family. People believe that by properly propitiating the serpent deity such misfortunes as death of children, blindness and skin diseases can also be avoided. The ceremony of *pamban thullal* or serpent dance is resorted to for averting the occurrence of such misfortunes. It must however be noted that the ceremonies connected with the serpent cult have receded into the background in recent years as a consequence of the decrease in the number of serpent *Kavus* and the decline of superstition.

Ancestor-worship is another practice which has been quite common among the Hindus of the District. It is customary to celebrate the death anniversary of one's ancestors. Among the Paniyas the deceased ancestors are called *Pena* and an annual ceremony is conducted to propitiate these ancestral spirits. At one time among many Hindu communities the deceased *Karanavans* were represented by stones kept in the principal room of the house and an oil lamp was kept burning throughout the night but with the decline of the joint family this practice has ceased. However, offerings are made to departed souls on New Moon and *Sankaranti* days. Failure to propitiate the deceased ancestors is supposed to cause serious misfortunes in the family.

Though the belief in magic and witchcraft has declined considerably in recent years, they still play a part in the life of the people of the District. The exorcists have not lost their influence on the unsophisticated folk who believe that diseases can be cured by having recourse to magic. Spirits and demons are even now invoked to spread terror and death over enemies and services of magicians are requisitioned to bring them under control. The Hill Tribes called Karimpalans are supposed to be capable of exorcising Karuvilli a demon whose possession is in the form of fever.

In the religious life of the people the observance of certain daily practices is customary. The observances of an orthodox Namboothiri last from 4 a.m. to 10 a.m. Almost every orthodox Malayali Hindu begins his daily activity only

after a visit to the nearby temple. The observance of fasts on important occasions like *Shashti, Ekadasi, Pradosham, Full Moon* and *New Moon* days is very popular among those Hindus who are religious-minded. Each day of the week is considered sacred to a particular God and a fast is undertaken to propitiate him. It is also common to celebrate important religious festivals. In Chingam (August-September) is celebrated the *Ashtami Rohini* in commemoration of the birth of Krishna. *Navarathri* falls in the month of Kanni (September-October). It is a nine day festival but the last three days are considered the most important viz., *Ashtami, Navami* and *Dasami*. The *Vijayadasami* day is considered auspicious for the beginning of children's education or *Vidyarambha*. Deepavali is celebrated in the month of Tulam (October-November), but the festivities associated with the celebration in the Southern District of Trivandrum are missing in this District. Ayilyam falls in the month of Dhanu (December-January). It is important for the worship of cobras. *Tiruvatira,* one of the most important festivals of the District, is celebrated in the same month. Females take the important part in the celebration of this festival which commemorates the death of Kamadeva (God of Love). Early in the morning women and girls wake up and offer worship in the Siva temple. As a rule they do not take rice preparations on this day. Husbands are expected to visit their wives without fail on the occasion of the *Tiruvatira*. It may be noted that *Tiruvatira* is not celebrated on such a popular scale in South Kerala. The festival of *Sivarathri* falls in the month of Kumbham (February-March). Vishu is observed on the first of Medam (April-May), which is the Malayalam New Year day. The most important events of the day are the *Vishu Kani,* the presentation of coins (*Vishu Kaineettam*) to children and dependents by the elder members of the family, and the extensive display of fireworks in almost every Hindu home. Though the first two events are common to Vishu celebration in all parts of Kerala, the display of fireworks is peculiar to this District, and North and Central Kerala. Onam, the most important of all the Malayali festivals falls in the month of Chingam which is noted for its abundance. The tradition behind the observance of Onam is that during the reign of Mahabali Kerala was prosperous and free from wants. He was pushed down to the infernal regions by Vamana, an incarnation of Vishnu. People had great affection for Mahabali as he was a benevolent king and

hence even after his expulsion he was allowed to return to the earth once a year. He is supposed to visit his old subjects in the month of Chingam, and in commemoration of this Onam is celebrated. Though at one time a purely Hindu affair, Onam is today almost the national festival of all Keralites irrespective of caste, creed, rank or sex. From 1961 the Onam celebrations are organised in Kerala on a grand scale under the auspices of the State Government. Sports and games are conducted during Onam festival and competitions are held. *Oonjal* (swinging), *Kaikottikali* (singing and dancing by clapping), *Pandukali* (country foot-ball) etc. are some of the common games played during the Onam festival.

Manners and Customs

Some of the most important manners and customs that have been prevalent among the non-Brahmin Hindus of the District may be briefly described, though they have today little more than historical interest. At one time the ceremony *talikettukalyanam* was a significant event among the Nairs and the Tiyyas and some of the Hill Tribes like the Kurichiyas and Mulla Kurumbars. It was performed before the girl attained puberty and used to last for several days. Persons of high status and those who belonged to the higher castes were the *tali* tiers. The Raja of Cranganore was traditionally the *tali* tier to the royal family of the Zamorins of Calicut. Among the Mulla Kurumbars the person who tied the *tali* was the girl's maternal uncle. Though generally the number of *tali* tiers was the same as that of the girls, instances were not rare when a *tali* tier tied the bridal necklace round the neck of many girls. The ceremonial bridegroom might be a stranger and he got no marital rights except in rare cases. After this ceremony when the girl came of age she was free to contract marriage with the person of her choice. *Sambandham* or regular marriage was celebrated after a girl attained puberty. Under the stress of modern civilization and as a result of the work of social reformers the ceremony of *talikettukalyanam* has now been given up. Another ceremony was the *tirandukuli* which was performed after the girl attained puberty. It lasted four days during which period the girl was kept in a separate room. Relatives and friends used to be invited and entertained in the house of the girl. This custom too has now become obsolete. An important ceremony performed during the pregnancy of a woman was

pulikudi (tamarind juice drinking) which is similar to the *Pumsavana* of the Brahmins. This is performed in the 7th or 9th month of pregnancy. These ceremonies of the non-Brahmin Hindus of the District have now practically disappeared.

The ceremonies of the Namboothiris are characterised by Vedic rites. An important ceremony which corresponds to the *pulikudi* of the non-Brahmin Hindus is the *pumsavana*. It is the rite expressing the longing for a male offspring and performed in the third month of pregnancy. *Seemantam* is performed in the seventh or eighth month of pregnancy in the husband's house. *Jatakarmam* is the birth rite. The father of the child mixes ghee and honey and with a gold ring gives the baby honey. The mother is taken care of by a woman of low caste. It may be noted in this connection that only on this occasion a Malayali low caste woman can come near the mother and touch her. On the 12th day the naming ceremony i.e., *namakaranam* is performed. In addition to these there are a few ceremonies like *niskramana, annaprasana* and *chowlam* before the *vidyarambha* or the initiation of the child to letters at its fifth year. At the seventh or eighth year of the child the important ceremony of *upanayana* is performed. He is invested with the holy thread and by this he becomes twice born. The ceremonies and other customs of the Namboothiris are so numerous that they defy individual description.

It would be appropriate in this connection to highlight some of the peculiar customs and manners of the Hill Tribes. The Kurichiyas who regard themselves as blessed human beings, observe many customs rigidly. If their house is visited by an outsider they regard it essential to wash it with a purification ceremony (*Punyaham*). Generally they never take their meals from houses outside including the *Illams* of the Namboothiris, even if it means that they have to starve for days together. They have also peculiar notions of untouchability and unapproachability. They keep aloof from the Paniyas,, Hill Pulayas, Urali Kurumbars, Kattunayakans etc. The members of the community are not allowed to cut their hair. They wear only a particular type of dress. Among them when a girl attains puberty she is to be confined to a separate room for seven days. The Paniyas, the most numerous and almost the poorest of all Hill Tribes of Wynad, have no objection to

admitting an outsider to their house. Their puberty and birth ceremonies are more or less similar to those of the Kurichiyas. On the 7th or 8th day after a girl attains puberty the usual ceremonies are concluded by a sumptuous feast. The Mulla Kurumbars would allow outsiders to enter only the verandah of their house. There is not much difference in regard to the observance of puberty ceremony between the Kurumbars and other Hill Tribes. There are certain peculiar customs prevalent among the Mulla Kurumba women during the period of their confinement. For five consecutive days after delivery the mother has to live in a separate room. For fifteen days she has to take three baths a day. The Mulla Kurumbars usually bury their dead, though cremation also is not uncommon. On the 11th day after the death of a person the near relatives crop their heads and make themselves clean. In this connection it is necessary to point out that the increasing influx of the people of the plains to the virgin lands of Wynad has had a tremendous impact on the original dwellers of the Wynad jungles. Far reaching changes have taken place in their way of life. Rigid observance of old customs has no place now and the unsophisticated Hill Tribes have begun to mingle with the sophisticated immigrants. They have shed their old hesitation to send their children to schools. In fact they are now actuated by a desire for social reform. The avarice of a few of the large number of immigrants however stands in the way of the progress of these simple folk.

Funeral ceremonies

The funeral ceremonies common to the majority of the Hindus may be considered here. When a person dies the dead body is taken to the central courtyard and washed. The body is covered with new cloth and marks of *bhasma* (sacred ash) are made on the forehead and joints. It is then carried to the cremation ground. Till quite recently the chief mourner was the senior *anandaravan*. But now the eldest son has taken this place. He takes a pot of water in hand and goes round the funeral pyre letting the water out. After the cremation ceremony the *seshakriya* consisting of *sanchayanam* and *beliyidal* begins. The *sanchayanam* which is the ceremony of disposal of remains is done on the 7th or the 14th day. The unburnt bones and ashes collected and deposited in a mud pot are carried to a sacred river and immersed. *Beliyidal* is the

ceremony of offering of rice balls to crows. *Pulakuli* (pollution bath) is on the 15th day when the priest gives oil to all. A senior member of the *tarawad* grows *diksha* for one year. It may however be mentioned that not all the post cremation ceremonies described above are uniformly observed at present.

When a Namboothiri breathes his last the body is removed to a cushion of *Kusa*. When he is dead the eldest son sprinkles water on the body and touches with a knife all the joints of the body. Marks of sandal-wood paste are made on the body after it has been washed. Then the body is taken to the pyre and burnt. The ceremonies during and after the body is taken to the pyre are almost similar to those performed by the non-Brahmin Hindus. All the mourners return home after the *udakakriya* (water oblations). When an unmarried woman dies the body must undergo the ritual of marriage, the *tali* being tied.

Sradha is the ceremony of making offerings to the departed spirits of fore-fathers. Once in every year people perform this ceremony.

MUSLIMS

The Muslims of the District are known as Mappilas. A great majority of them are Sunnis following the *shafi* school of ritual and dogma. Generally the Mappilas are frugal, industrious and enterprising. Most of those who live in the coastal areas are merchants, day labourers and fishermen. The progress of education among them has been extremely slow. Till recently they had objection to giving their boys and girls a liberal English education as they were afraid that they might turn out to be irreligious. Consequently the Muslim community remained educationally backward and it was not properly represented in Government service and the learned professions. A change for the better took place even before Independence was attained. Schools for the education of Muslim youth sprang up and individual Muslims came to occupy responsible positions in public life. The community began to forge ahead.

Religious Beliefs and Customs

The Muslims of the District are noted for their religious fervour. Their mosques are structures built with the main entrance to the west. A *Musaliar* or *Maulavi* is attached to

every mosque, and subordinate to him is the ***Mullah***. ***Kazi*** is the head of the congregation, and the ***Kathib*** or ***Imam*** leads in prayer. It is not uncommon that the office of ***kazi*** is held by a ***Thangal***. The ***Thangals*** are regarded with a high degree of reverence. They claim to be the direct descendants of the Prophet. We may also find ***Musaliars*** who go about preaching and teaching. The Muslims strictly observe the five essentials of the religion viz. the recital of the ***shahadat*** or creed, the five daily prayers (*niskaram*), the Ramzan fast (*Sawn Ramzan*), the duty of alms (*zakkat*), and the *haj* or the pilgrimage to Mecca. Cleaning of hands and feet (ablution) precedes each prayer. The daily prayers are said at day break, soon after mid-day, before sunset, after sunset, and early in the night. The prayers are in Arabic. On Fridays congregation prayers are said in the mosque. The Ramzan fast which lasts for 30 days begins on the first of Ramzan, the 9th month of *Hijira*. When one observes the fast one cannot eat or drink anything at all from sun-rise to sun-set. On the 27th day which is regarded as most sacred the Muslims give alms to the poor amounting to 2½% of their money. The *Haj*—pilgrimage to Mecca—must be undertaken by all who can afford it and those who return after the *Haj* come to be called *Hajees*. Two important festivals celebrated by the Muslims are the *Cheriya Perunal* (*Ramzan Eidul Fitr*) and *Valiya Perunal* (*Bakrid Eidul Azha*). The former is celebrated after the conclusion of the Ramzan fast. The latter festival is to commemorate *Ibrahim's* (Abraham) offering of Ishamael. The rich may sacrifice a he-goat or a bullock and distribute it among friends, relations and the poor. The famous *Haj* is performed in Mecca before the celebration of ***Eidul Azha***. We find more *Hajees* in the District than in any other. Annual festivals known as *Nercha* are celebrated in memory of the saints. Another ceremony observed by the Muslims is the ***Maulud*** which is a short treatise in Arabic celebrating the birth, life, works and sayings of the Prophet or some saint. The ***Mullah*** is to read the book and the congregation to make responses. Friends and relatives and other invited guests are given a feast. A ***Maulud*** may also be performed on the 3rd and 40th days after a death. Quran is taught by the ***Mullah*** in the mosque or in the building attached to it. The ***Thangals*** or ***Mullahs*** for curing diseases may write selections from the ***Quran*** on a plate with ink, and the ink mixed with water may be given to the patient. Belief in magic and superstition is as common among the Muslims as among the Hindus.

When a child is born to a Muslim the call to prayer, Azam (*vanku*) is made. The child is given gold dust mixed with honey. With the bath which the mother should have on the 40th day her pollution comes to an end. This last bath is usually followed by a feast. Circumcision is performed before a boy attains the age of 14. It is an occasion of rejoicing and feasting. Friends and relatives and authorities of the mosque are invariably invited.

A notable custom prevalent among the Muslims is the *kurikalyanam*. Other communities have also realized the inherent advantage in it and they also sometimes follow this custom. Any man who is hard pressed for money conducts a *kurikalyanam*. Friends and relatives are invited and they are given some light refreshments. The assembled guests are expected to give a sum of money to the host. The amount given varies according to the status and financial position of both the parties. This is a good way of acquiring a lump sum of money. Those who have given money on such occasions will invariably get a lump sum when they conduct the *kurikalyanam*. This is really a great boon to the people, especially to the poor. However, this custom is not confined to the poor, and the unwritten law is that those who have secured a lump sum in this way should give back a similar or higher amount when others conduct *kurikalyanam*. It may be mentioned that since the marriage of a girl usually involves heavy expenditure in connection with the dowry and such other things a marriage is generally preceded by a *kurikalyanam* especially among the poorer sections. Being a rough and ready way of self-help, it binds people to one another with a tie of self-interest.

Funeral ceremonies and customs

The Mappilas have their own funeral customs. When a person is about to die some of the nearest relatives will recite the *kalima* in his ears. When he dies, the body or *mayyat* is undressed and arranged so that the legs point to Mecca, the two big toes are tied together, and the hands crossed on the chest, the right over the left. The arms are also tied with a cloth. *Quran* is read by the *Mullah* or those who are able to read. After the arrival of the relatives the body is washed and laid on the floor on mats covered by clean cloth. Cotton wool is placed in the ears and nostrils and between the lips, fingers and the toes. The body is then covered with clean

and white new clothes and taken to the mosque in a bier, (*janaza*). Relatives friends and local people arrange themselves in lines and offer prayers (*Salat ul Janaza*) with the bier before them. Finally the body is taken from the bier and placed in the grave which is dug north and south. In the grave the body is turned so as to lie on its right side facing Mecca. After the burial the *Mullah* seats himself at the head of the grave and reads certain passages from the *Quran*. Arrangements are made for the *Mullahs* or others to read the *Quran* for several days over the grave, if the relatives of the deceased can afford to meet the expenses for such arrangements. The *Maulud* ceremony is performed on the 3rd and 40th days after death. On these days alms are distributed to the poor. *Mullahs* are paid for their services, and a feast is given to the invited guests. This ceremony is performed by the rich on anniversaries also. The *Maulud* ceremony after burial is now being given up by the advanced sections of the Muslim community. Reform movement is evident among the Muslims of the Kozhikode District.

Christians

According to the Census of 1951 the Christian population of the District number only 61,240, i.e., 2.96% of the total population. In all other Districts the percentage of Christians is higher than that in Kozhikode. Christianity is believed to have been introduced in Kerala by St. Thomas the Apostle in 52 A.D. But in the District under review not much progress was made by the Christians before the advent of the Portuguese towards the close of the 15th century. We find almost all the different sections of Christians here. Christians of Travancore and Cochin have migrated to the forest regions of Wynad in recent times, and set up pepper, cardamom and coffee estates. There have also been conversions to Christianity from among the local Hill Tribes. This has made the proportion of Christian population in these areas much higher than in other parts of the District.

The traditional Christian population of the District consists of cultivators, petty traders and fishermen, though some have improved their fortunes by hard labour. A majority of them are converts from the lower classes. Every church has a priest. The Romo-Syrians follow the doctrines and rituals of the Roman Catholics, but they use a different version of

the Latin liturgy. In the Reformed Syrian Churches a Malayalam translation of the Syriac liturgy has been adopted. Easter, Christmas, Assumption Day, Corpus Christi, and St. Thomas Day are the important festivals of the Christians.

Inter-caste relations

The dominant factor that once controlled inter-caste relations among the Hindus was the distinction between the *Savarnas* (High Caste Hindus) and the *Avarnas* (Low Caste Hindus). The Namboothiris and other higher castes were the *Savarnas* and they were in the apex of the social hierarchy. The Parayas, the Pulayas and the Hill Tribes were the lowest in the hierarchy and their value to the community was essentially economic as they were virtual serfs working the land for their masters. The caste law operated to maintain this hierarchy. Untouchability and unapproachability were widely practised and they prevented contacts among the different castes. Inter-dining and inter-marriage were regarded as social crimes. This was the picture of inter-caste relations a few decades ago.

But the regulations imposed by the higher castes that denied the rights of fellow human beings and perpetuated the division of society into water-tight compartments could not last long. The work of social reformers like Sri Narayana Guru, the teachings of Mahatma Gandhi and the influence of Hindu Reform Movements like the Ramakrishna Mission, Theosophical Society etc. created a change in the social outlook of the people. In the mean time the growth of western education and the spread of democratic ideas shook the old social order to its very foundations. The increasing pace of urbanisation, the development of the means of communication, the advance of science and technology and the introduction of adult franchise also contributed to the virtual break-down of the old caste barriers. Increasing legislative activity on the part of the State also brought about the great change in the field of inter-caste relations. The Temple Entry Act of 1938 which threw open the temple to all Hindus irrespective of caste may be mentioned in this connection. Though the older people in some cases have been hesitant to use the privilege conferred by the Act and the members of the younger generation may not care to go to the temple, the right of temple entry by itself has revolutionised inter-caste relations. With

the dawn of Independence and the declaration of untouchability as illegal the social revolution entered a decisive phase. Inter-caste relations have now lost their old rigidity. Inter-dining and inter-marriage are no longer looked upon with disfavour. It can be stated that the old social order has almost changed and a new society aware of the duties and responsibilities of the modern age has come into being.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

The laws of inheritance that have been in vogue in the District are *Marumakkathayam* and *Makkathayam*. The *Marumakkathayam* system which is peculiar to Kerala was followed by the Kshatriyas, the Nairs, the Ambalavasis and some other castes. Some of the Hill Tribes like the Wynadan Chettis, the Kurichiyas, the Karimpalans, the Kadars, the Thachanad Muppans, the Kunduvatiyans, the Pulayans etc. have also followed *Marumakkathayam*. The system has been more prevalent in the Northern Districts like Kozhikode than in South Kerala.[1] The Namboothiris, the Kammalas and some of the Hill Tribes like the Edanadan Chettis, the Mulla Kurumbars, Uridavans etc. have been *Makkathayis*. Among the Tiyyas both the systems have been in vogue. The Muslims and the Christians follow the *Makkathayam* system[2].

1. The theories of the origin of *Marumakkathayam* have been discussed in detail in the *Trivandrum District Gazetteer*, pp. 282-284.

2. However, till recently *Marumakkathayam* was followed by some Muslim families of Badagara, Tikkoti and other places in North Malabar. The Mappila *Marumakkathayam* Act (1939) gave to the Muslim members of the *Marumakkathayam* families the right to claim partition of their *tarawads*, and the property which they came to acquire as a result of such partition was thereafter to be governed by the Shariat law. Moreover the Shariat Act which was passed by the Central Legislature in 1937 was made applicable to properties owned by the Muslims of Madras State by an Act of the State Legislature in 1949, and with this the Muslims in the Malabar area who followed the *Marumakkathayam* law of inheritance also came to be governed by the patrilineal system of inheritance common to Muslims everywhere. Attention is invited to the Article on *Kerala Muslims and Marumakkathayam system* by K. M. Seethi Sahib in the *Kerala Muslim Directory*, 1960, pp. 409-413.

According to the *Marumakkathayam* system a man's own children had no legal claim to his property. The descent was through the female line i.e., through sister's children. But though a *tarawad* descended through the mother, the *tarawad* property was not in all cases earned by a male member, nor was it placed under the management of a mother. Under the *Marumakkathayam* system of succession the management of a *tarawad* property was vested by inheritance in the senior male member known as *Karanavan* who was entitled to its entire possession and was practically absolute in its management. Since the *tarawad* property was the joint property of all the members male as well as female, each member was entitled to maintenance from it, but was not entitled to claim partition. Partition of the *tarawad* property was possible only when all the members agreed to it.

As a law of inheritance the matriarchal (*Marumakkathayam*) system was imperfect in many respects. Being a mere body of traditional usages, there was not much scope for development in it by means of doctrinal interpretation and analogical reasoning. A serious defect of the system was that under it the *Karanavan* was autocratic and orthodox. He might as well roll himself in the lap of luxury and allow the other members of the *tarawad* to starve. While he might have natural feelings of love and affection towards his wife and children, his sentiments towards the rest could never be the outcome of the genuine promptings of nature. Often his interest was in conflict with his duty. The *Karanavan* began to abuse his powers and his wife (*ammayi*) played a notable role in heightening the tension within the *tarawad*. The condition of a junior member of the *tarawad* was pitiable. With no property or income of his own, he could not engage himself in any useful industry or strike out a new path. Consequently he was obliged to depend on the *tarawad* and lead an unhappy life subsisting upon the pittance which his *Karanavan* might be pleased to dole out to him. Moreover, the *Marumakkathayam* system gave rise to constant litigation among the members of the *tarawad*. Above all, as a result of the prevalence of this system, the Namboothiris who used to form *sambandham* with Nair women were freed from the responsibility of looking after their wife and children. Towards the close of the 19th century the Malabar Marriage Commission observed "With the advance of education, *Marumakkathayam* is becom-

ing hopelessly unworkable. It offends against every principle of political economy and of healthy family life. It is based upon the doctrine that there is no merit in female virtue and no sin in unchastity; and of this doctrine the very founders of this system are heartily ashamed. By freeing a man from the obligation of maintaining his wife and offspring, it sanctions the reckless propagation of the species, destroying all motives of prudence and forethought and forces up the population to the point whence it must be put down by the actual want of the means of subsistence."[1]

As the evils of the *Marumakkathayam* system began to manifest themselves, the agitation for partition of the *tarawad* property gathered momentum. The movement was sponsored in the Travancore area of the State by the Nair Service Society and it had its ardent advocates in Malabar also. In course of time legislative measures were enacted to do away with the evils of *Marumakkathayam*. The Madras *Marumakkathayam* Act promulgated in 1933 changed the structure of family organization and the law of inheritance in Malabar. The Act allowed partition of the *tarawad* property and legalized inheritance from father to son. The *tarawad* could now be partitioned without the consent of the *Karanavan*, if the majority of the members demanded partition. The *Karanavan's* word was no longer the *tarawad* law. On the other hand, he was responsible to the other members of the *tarawad* and had to keep accounts. Members of a *tarawad* or *tavazhi*[2] also became entitled to maintenance from the *tarawad* or *tavazhi* property, wherever they were. The Act of 1933 almost sounded the death-knell of the *Marumakkathayam* system.

As already stated the Namboothiris of the District and some other castes followed the *Makkathayam* or patrilineal system of inheritance. The Namboothiri *illam* was a patrilineal descent group comprised of all the descendants in the male line. Only the eldest son married in the community and all others had *sambandham* with Kshatriya, Ambalavasi or Nair women who were governed by the *Marumakkathayam* law of inheritance. Hence only the children of the eldest son

1. Quoted by T. K. Gopala Panikkar in his '*Malabar and its Folk*'.

2. A woman separated from her *tarawad* by partition or otherwise with her descendants in the female line often constitute a *tavazhi* i.e., a distinct branch of the *tarawad*.

belonged to the *illam*. The daughters belonged to it only so long as they were unmarried, but after marriage they belonged to the husband's *illam*. The property of the *illam* was held in common, and all members, male or female, were entitled to maintenance in the family house. The property was managed by the eldest male member. The primary principle of the *illam* organisation was that the family property was impartible. The Madras Namboothiri Act of 1933 brought about changes in the Namboothiri law of inheritance. It provided that every member of an *illam*, both male and female, had equal share in the *illam* property. Another important provision of the Act was that the younger Namoothiris were allowed to marry Namboothiri girls. With this the children of all the junior members of an *illam* became the legal heirs of the property of the *illam*.

Legislation in recent years has included measures of reform affecting the law of inheritance among all classes of Hindus. The Hindu Succession Act which came into effect in 1956 provides for a uniform system for all Hindus with respect to intestate succession. The Act removes the inequality between man and woman in regard to rights of property. It applies to persons governed by the *Marumakkathayam* law also.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS

Monogamy and Polygamy

Though the majority of the people of the District have followed monogamy, polygamy was not at all uncommon. Among the Namboothiris the eldest son could marry three wives. The Namboodiri youngesters used to have *sambandham* marriage with Nair women. It may be pointed out that the same person could form *sambandham* marriage with more than one woman. The Nair men also differed little from the Namboothiris in regard to polygamy. The Muslims generally followed monogamy. Though according to religious law a Muslim is entitled to have four wives, even a microscopic minority of Muslims does not seem to have kept four wives. The Christians strictly followed and still follow monogamy. A Christian can marry a second wife only if the first one dies. The Hill Tribes like the Paniyas and the Kurumbars follow monogamy. Most of the polygamous communities have

recently adopted monogamy mainly as a result of the spread of English education and adoption of western modes of life by the people. Legislative enactments of the Government have also played a prominent part in encouraging the shift towards monogamy. The Madras Marriage Act of 1896, the Madras Marumakkathayam Act of 1933 and the Madras Namboothiri Act of 1933 may be mentioned in this connection. These Acts imposed on the husbands the legal responsibility for the maintenance of the wife and children and consequently there was a decrease in the number of exogamous marriages. Besides the Hindu Marriage Act which came into force in 1956 has modified the law relating to Hindu marriage and it has made monogamy compulsory among all classes of Hindus.

Polyandry

Polyandry existed mostly among the *Marumakkathayam* communities like the Nairs. This is testified to by Barbosa and other European travellers who have written about Malabar[1]. Among the Kammalas and some of the Hill Tribes also polyandry was widely prevalent. The Tiyyas and the Kanisans formerly used to have one wife in common among several brothers. The Malabar Marriage Commission of 1894 stated that polyandry existed until the third quarter of the 19th century. With the spread of western education there was a growing realisation among the people that polyandry was a sign of the lack of civilization and gradually they abandoned it. Though a few isolated cases of the practice of polyandry cannot be ruled out, it can be stated generally that polyandry has now become almost extinct.

Traditional restrictions on marriage alliances

Certain traditional restrictions based on caste and relationship are observed by all castes and communities. Marriage alliances are usually contracted only among members of the same caste and community and inter-caste or inter-communal marriages are rare. Nevertheless, at one time members of the higher castes enjoyed the privilege of marrying women belonging to castes lower to them in status. Thus among the Namboothiris while only the eldest male member was allowed to marry a Namboothiri girl all the other members of the *illam* used to form *sambandham* marriage with Kshatriya or

1 See Chapter II.

Nair women. But even the Namboothiris did not marry women of any caste below the Nairs. The Kshatriyas and Nairs once regarded a matrimonial alliance with the Namboothiris as an honour conferred on them by the higher caste but to-day such notions have disappeared.

The practice of young Namboothiris forming *sambandham* marriage was effectively discouraged by the passing of the Madras Namboothiri Act of 1933 which permitted the younger members of the *illam* to marry Namboothiri women. At the same time the younger Namboothiris regarded it as their duty to marry their own women a large number of whom remained spinsters due to the prevalence of the *sambandham* form of marriage. Moreover, the Nairs also began to express their disapproval of the system. Among the Nairs and the Tiyyas marriages between the various sub-castes were not common till recently. Similarly there was no inter-caste or inter-tribal marriage among the Scheduled Castes and Tribes either. The spread of western ideas and the growth of urbanisation have brought about significant changes in the institution of marriage. Most of the traditional restrictions on marriage based on caste have been swept away by the force of public opinion or legislative enactments. The members of all communities have now the freedom to marry women belonging to any other community, though this freedom is not used extensively. But inter-caste marriages are not unheard of in recent times. Inter-marriages between the various sub-castes among Nairs and Tiyyas are now common.

In spite of the break-down of the traditional restrictions based on caste, those based on the degree of relationship are still observed. Thus marriage between near relations is taboo. Marriage between children of two brothers or two sisters is forbidden among almost all communities. Hindus and Muslims allow marriage with a daughter of a maternal uncle or paternal aunt. But Christians prohibit this type of marriage.

Marriage customs and rituals

The marriage customs and rituals prevailing among the important communities in the District are not substantially different from those in other parts of the State. Among the Namboothiris, the Kshatriyas, the Nairs, the Tiyyas and other Hindu Castes the horoscopes of the boy and girl are compared

before marriage, and if there is proper agreement between them the marriage is settled. The party of the bridegroom arrives in procession at the house of the bride on the day fixed for the marriage. Among the Namboothiris the bridegroom is received by women with *Ashtamangalyam.* The *tali* brought by him is tied round the neck of the bride by her father at an auspicious hour. Then cloth is given to the groom and double length cloth to the bride. This is followed by *udakapurvakanyadana,* offering the daughter's hands by pouring water. Clasping each other's hands (*panigrahana*) the bride and the bridegroom take three rounds round the sacred fire. With *saptapadi* (walking seven steps) the first day's ceremonies are over. Then both the bride and the bridegroom go to the latter's house where some ceremonies are performed on the following day. After the *grihapravesa* they live together in the bridegroom's house.

Among the Nairs when the bridegroom and his party arrive at the bride's residence they are received with *Ashtamangalyam.* The feet of the bridegroom are washed by the bride's brother. All are seated in the hall or pandal which is specially decorated for the occasion. A circular design is drawn on the floor by rice-flour mixed in water. Near the entrance are placed three lighted oil lamps (*Nilavilakkus*). The bride is brought in by her mother and is seated in the front of the bridegroom. The bridegroom ties the *tali* round the neck of the bride and presents her with cloth. It may be noted that now the *sari* is presented instead of the former *pudava.* A sumptuous feast is served to the assembled guests after the marriage ceremony is over. The marriage customs and rituals of Tiyyas do not differ much from those of the Nairs. Usually Hindu marriages are conducted at the bride's residence. But in recent times a good number of marriages take place in temples. A nominal fee is paid to the temple authorities for the conduct of the marriage. This practice is convenient in many respects. Not only is marriage procedure simplified but unnecessary waste of money or expenditure is avoided.

The marriage customs of the Hill Tribes of the District are particularly noteworthy. Marriage by elopement has been quite common among the Paniyas. About 50% of the Paniya marriages have taken place in this way. The system saves the contracting parties the expense of the feast and also the trouble of immediate payment of the bride price which ranged

from Re. 1 to Rs. 5 in pre-war days. The Paniyas are jealous in sexual matters, and the husband does not generally tolerate his wife talking to other men. Immediately after marriage he builds a separate hut for himself and his wife in the vicinity of his parents' hut. It is customary among the Paniyas for the husband to pay a sum of Re. 1 as *Talapattam* to his father-in-law every year, and if the father-in-law dies, to the brother-in-law.

Among the Wynadan Chettis there are two distinct kinds of marriage rites. One permits marital relations but does not allow the woman to live with her husband in his house. The other system known as *Malakolyanam* confers on the woman the right of living with the husband.

The Kadars have their own distinctive customs. The wedding is arranged by the elders of the families concerned. The bridegroom and his friends are treated to a good meal when they go to the bride's house. The bridegroom presents two new clothes to the bride's mother, and then takes the bride to his home. She lives with the husband in his house. Custom requires that she should continue to do so for one year even after his death. Thereafter when she returns home she is given cloth and the deceased husband's knife and other belongings.

Among the Kurichiyas the parents settle the marriage. On the day fixed for the marriage a few people from the bridegroom's house come to the residence of the bride. They are cordially received and the clothes brought by them are given to the bride. The bride is then taken to the bridegroom's house. A peculiar feature of the Kurichiya marriage is that the bridegroom does not go to the house of the bride on the marriage day. Only on the 7th day he makes his appearance. On that day he brings the bride to her house for a feast. With this the marriage ceremoney is over.

Among the Mulla Kurumbars too marriage is settled by the parents. It is usually held in their temples which are specially decorated for the occasion. On the marriage day the bridegroom accompanied by friends and relatives goes to the temple. A kind of ear rings should be worn by him. He must give Rs. 5.50 as bride's money in addition to clothes. There is no exchange of garlands. With the handing over of the cloth the marriage ceremoney is over. The guests will be treated to feasts at the houses of the bride and the bridegroom.

The Urali Kurumba bridegroom has to pay Rs. 15 as bride's money. Like the Mulla Kurumba bridegroom he too has to bring clothes. There is no garlanding. But the bride wears a garland at the time of the marriage. Like the rest of the Hill Tribes the Urali Kurumbars wear during marriage ornaments and the best dress available. After the marriage the bride is brought to the hut of the bridegroom, and after 5 day's stay there the couple return to the bride's house.

A peculiar custom among the Ernadans of Nilambur, which is now said to have been given up, is that the father of a family used to take his eldest daughter as a second wife.

Among the Muslims after a girl is selected for marriage, a few people mostly relatives and friends of the bride and bridegroom meet together to settle the dowry and to make other arrangements. On the day fixed for the marriage the bridegroom and his party proceed to the house of the bride. They are received by the bride's father and others. The religious ceremoney which is compulsory for the wedding is the *Nikkah*. It consists of the formal conclusion of the contract before two witnesses and the *Kazi* who registers it. This function can be performed by any learned man, but it is usually reserved for the *Kazi* of the bride's locality. The formula consists of the recital of the *Kalima* and a formal acceptance of the conditions of the match thrice repeated. After the ceremony the assembled guests are treated to a sumptuous feast. The bridegroom is then conducted into the presence of the bride in her chamber. The *tali* is tied round the neck of the bride. After the ceremonies are over the bride goes to the house of the bridegroom. In the northern part of the District it had been the custom for the wife to live in her own house like the Nair women in a *Marumakkathayam* family. But this practice is dying out and the wife now prefers to live with her husband in his family or in a separate house of their own. Nevertheless, even now the system of a Muslim woman living in her house even after marriage and the husband coming to her house every day is followed in some families in Calicut, Badagara and other places.

The Christians celebrate their marriage in the churches. All arrangements for the wedding are made in the bride's house in the presence of friends and relatives. Arrangment for the payment of dowry is also to be made beforehand. It

is the duty of the Parish Priest or any other religious authority superior to the Parish Priest to conduct the marriage. After the marriage service is read the bridegroom ties the *tali* round the bride's neck. The *tali*, which is the marriage badge, should be worn by the married woman as long as she lives. After paying the fees to the church the bridal pair return home accompanied by friends and relatives. The assembled guests are then treated to a feast.

Dowry system

Dowry system exists among almost all the communities in the District. The dowry is usually paid in cash, property, and jewellery. The Muslims, Christians, and Nambootbiris suffer most from this time-honoured evil. Large sums of money have to be paid if the girls are to be married to well-placed persons. Parents belonging particularly to the middle and lower income groups therefore find it very difficult to marry away their daughters. In spite of the fact that many social reformers have worked hard to do away with this evil, it still persists. To counteract the evil mutual marriage alliances have increased recently. The brother of a girl proposed for marriage undertakes to marry the sister of the proposed bridegroom. Recently Government have had recourse to legislation for the abolition of the dowry system. The Dowry Prohibition Act came into force with effect from July 1, 1961. Since then giving, taking, and demanding of dowry have become offences punishable under law. A person who violates the law can be sentenced to imprisonment up to six months or to a fine which may extend to Rs. 5,000, or both. The institution of dowry is deep rooted in the present day society. A mere legislative enactment cannot be expected to uproot the system. The co-operation of the people is absolutely essential to make the efforts of the Government and social reformers a success.

Civil marriage

An overwhelming majority of marriages among all communities are solemnized according to the personal laws of each community at their homes, temples, churches or mosques. Only ten marriages were registered in the office of the District Registrar, Kozhikode, under the Sepcial Marriages Act 1954 up to 1961. People generally avoid civil marriage because of the inconveniences associated with it. They resort to it only

when marriage under personal law becomes impossible. Love marriages, inter-caste marriages, and inter-sub-caste marriages are registered by the parties concerned, when parents of both the parties, or either of them, raise objections to the marriage.

Marital age

Till recent times pre-puberty marriage was prevalent among all the communities except perhaps the Namboothiris. The existence of the post-puberty marriage among the Namboothiris was the direct result of the excess of girls of marriageable age resulting from the marriage from within the caste of only the eldest sons of their families. The custom of younger Namboothiris forming *sambandham* with Nair girls has practically disappeared and they now marry within their own community. But this has not affected the former position in regard to post-puberty marriage because of the social awareness of the evil of early marriage. Till the early decades of the present century it was only normal that a majority of Muslim girls were married before they were twelve years old. The Nairs, the Tiyyas etc. also used to marry away their girls at a very early age. In recent years all the communities have changed their old view in regard to marital age. Late marriage is now the rule rather than the exception. The spread of education and the rapid growth of population have taught the people the advantages of late marriage. The complete absence of early marriage at least among the educated sections of the society is a record of which the Malayalees have reason to be proud. Legislative enactments have played not an insignificant role in bringing about this change. Mention may be made in this connection of the Special Marriage Act 1954, which fixes the minimum age for marriage at 21 for men and 15 for women. A vast majority of men marry only after they attain the age of 25, and women 18.

Divorce

Divorce is not a matter of common occurrence among the people of the District. Marriage is usually celebrated with solemnity by all castes and communities and the couple often take the vow to keep the tie unbroken. However, it cannot be said that divorce is unknown in the District. Cases of desertion of wives by husbands are sometimes noticed, particularly among the poorer sections of the community. Unfortunately we have no statistical data to prove the frequency, or otherwise, of divorce.

Marriage of widows

Widow marriage is now sanctioned by law, but till recently the custom was not generally favoured among some of the Hindu communities like the Brahmins. The result was that among these communities if the husband died, the widow remained unmarried till her death. The Nairs, the Tiyyas and several of the Hill Tribes have always permitted widow marriage, though there has been a feeling in certain quarters that it was not quite respectable to do so. The status of a married widow was therefore sometimes looked upon as inferior. Among the Edanadan Chetties there is a custom according to which a widow has to marry her husband's brother to the exclusion of strangers. Among the Christians and Muslims the marriage of widows has been generally allowed.

Economic dependence of women and their place in society

The economic dependence of women has been proverbial. But in recent times women have successfully freed themselves from this tutelage. In all fields of activity they now play a dominant role. A good number of women are employed as teachers, clerks and typists. There are also doctors, politicians, and lawyers among the women of the District. These are signs of the growing economic independence of women. Among the poorer classes women work in large numbers as daily labourers, agricultural and industrial, and cases of the economic dependence of men on such women are also not rare. However, it must be conceded that a large proportion of women are unemployed primarily due to the lack of openings. The natural disability associated with the fair sex is also a factor which denies to women many privleges, and opportunities which make for economic independence.

Prostitution, Drinking and Gambling

The District is not free from social evils. In some places prostitution is resorted to by some women for their livelihood. Those who are suspected of this are always looked down by society. In Calicut city prostitute women used to construct temporary brothels. Police have demolished such brothels and arrested many of the prostitutes. Due to the active raids of the police with the support of the people prostitution does not exist on an organised scale. Prohibition is in force in the District and cases of drunkenness cannot therefore be as numerous here

as in the wet areas. In spite of the enforcement of prohibition the people are addicted to drink illicit country made arrack, and a few persons have also obtained licence for drinking foreign liquor. Separate figures of persons convicted for drunkenness are not available. Gambling is only a minor social evil in this District. It leads to quarrels among those who are engaged in it. Consequently people of the locality where gambling offences are committed are put to much inconvenience. On receipt of complaints from the people police parties conduct raids in suspected quarters. The Kerala Gambling Act of 1960 was passed in order to make better provision for the punishment of gambling and keeping of common gambling houses in the State.

HOME LIFE

Dwellings

As Kozhikode did not exist as a separate administrative unit during the Census of 1951 it is not possible to give the exact figures of the number of houses and households, in the District. However, the following statement of households in Kozhikode Taluk and Calicut city might be of some interest in this connection.

STATEMENT OF HOUSEHOLDS IN KOZHIKODE TALUK AND CALICUT CITY (1961 CENSUS.)

	Kozhikode Taluk.	*Calicut City.*
Total number of households	58,616	25,759
Total household population	356,425	156,103
Total number of sample households	118	11
Sample of household population	691	67
Size of sample households:—		
(a) *Small*:		
(3 members or less)		
1. Number	21	3
2. Persons	53	8
(b) *Medium*:		
(4—6 members)		
1. Number	53	2
2. Persons	267	10
(c) *Large*:		
(7—9 members)		
1. Number	32	4
2. Persons	243	29
(d) *Very Large*:		
(10 members or above)		
1. Number	12	2
2. Persons	128	20

The number of persons per house in the erstwhile Western Division of the Madras State which included the regions constituting the present Kozhikode District increased from 5.1 in 1921, 1931 and 1941 to 6.3 in 1951. It can be safely stated that the provision of housing accommodation has not kept pace with growth in population. In the rural areas the standard of housing is poorer than in towns and with this is tied up the growing problem of congestion. In the urban areas also there has been a steady increase in the number of persons per house between 1941 and 1951. This increase is of course due to the large exodus of people from rural areas to towns. The number of persons per house in the urban areas of the erstwhile Malabar District is 8. The following table gives the figures of the total population and the number of houses, households, and houseless persons in certain select centres in the District at the Census of 1951.

STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER OF HOUSES, HOUS-E HOLDS ETC. IN SELECT CENTRES (1951 CENSUS)

Place	*Population*	*Number of houses*	*Number of households*	*Number of houseless persons*
Calicut City	158,724	19,198	25,799	2,621
Feroke	19,463	2,983	3,209	155
Manjeri	10,357	1,692	1,956	48
Badagara	23,606	2,772	3,122	193
Pantalayini	29,001	4,348	4,538	..
Trikkandiyur	11,830	1,719	1,870	56
Tanur	17,883	2,193	2,634	..

The old houses extant in different parts of the District show that the people of Kerala have always preferred a simple and quiet way of life. Dwellings may be seen on the margin of fertile valleys, green paddy fields, and ravines. The traditional Malayali house is built in the midst of a spacious orchard and umbrageous trees offering cool shade and invariably hemmed in by mud walls. The Malayali being punctilious about his cleanliness keeps the courtyard and precincts of the house neat and tidy. The floor of the courtyard is well rammed or made smooth by cowdung mixed with charcoal. The main building faces the rising sun, but paradoxically it is

called the western building or *Padinjattepura*. On either side of this building are the *Vatakkini* and *Tekkini*—the northern and southern rooms—, the former used for cooking and the latter for general use. A fourth room attached to the building is called *Kizhakkini* or the eastern room. Usually a *chaypu* or bent is erected providing a verandah room. The woodwork of the dwelling is solid and substantial and is beautifully carved. The walls are made of bricks and lime or mud. The roofs are either thatched or tiled. Within the compound are a cattleshed and a tank for bathing purposes, often full of fish and water lilies. A *tulasithara* is constructed in front of the house. The foregoing is a description of the traditional Malayali house of people of the upper strata.

Houses of different castes have been known by different names. The Namboothiris' house was called either *'mana'* or *illam*, the *Raja's* house or palace *Kovilakam* or *Kottaram*, the Naduvazhi's house *Idom* or *Kuttala* or *Bhavanam*, Nair's *Vidu*, Ambalavasi's *Poomattam*, *Pisharam* or *Variyam*, Chakiar's Nambiyar's, Tampan's, and Thirumulpad's *Matom* and others' *Kudi*, *Podika*, *Pura*, *Chala* etc. It may be interesting to note in this connection that the house of the Kadars, a Hill Tribe, is aso known as *Illam*, which is the name of the Namboothiris' house. Today all these epithets and appellations have lost much of their old meaning and all houses irrespective of class or caste distinction are known by one appellation—*Vidu*.

In recent times domestic architecture in Kerala has undergone significant changes in style and design. While the old houses were constructed to suit the needs of the joint family modern houses are so built as to accommodate single households. Wood entered largely in the construction of the old buildings. In recent times such materials as iron. girders, tubes, railings, cement, asbestos sheets etc. are profusely used in the construction of buildings. Cement concrete houses are fast taking the place of houses made of bricks set in either mud or lime. The residential flat system with multi-storeyed buildings found in some of the big cities in India is yet to come here. While the old houses intended for the joint family ensured more privacy by their dark, dirt-ridden and labyrinthine rooms, the houses now built for individual families are self-contained, maintain more economy in space and allow more light, ventilation, convenience and accessibility.

The facilities and accommodation in the huts of the lower classes are however awfully meagre. It may be relevant in this connection to refer to the dwellings of the Hill Tribes of the District. The huts (*chalas*) of the Kurichiyar, Kurumbar and other Hill Tribes of Wynad unfold a gloomy picture. They have for their walls bamboo reefs joined together by alluvial soil and their roof is thatched with either palmyrah leaves or straw. But it must be stated that the colonisation and housing schemes now being implemented by the Government represent a positive step towards improving the housing conditions of the Hill Tribes.

Furniture and Decorations

Human wants in early times were very few. The essential requirements in the houses of upper class and middle class families consisted of a brass pot with a spout (*kindi*), a few brass plates and saucers, brass pan, a betel box, a few mats, coir cots, wooden bins for storing grain, wick lamps (*nilavilakku*), etc. In recent decades the items of furniture have increased considerably. Most of the houses of upper and middle class families are well-furnished and beautifully decorated. Chairs, tables, bedsteads, stools, benches, shelves, teapoys, settees, mirrors, chest of drawers, coat stands, radio sets etc., have become almost indispensable items of furniture and decoration in a modern house. Some items of furniture, particularly chairs and cots are made of rattan. Screwpine products are used for both fancy and utility. Coir mats are laid at the door-step for dusting off the dirt in the feet. Embroidered cushions, the fringes of which are artistically tucked, are kept in an inclined position on the settees. Exquisite specimens of art made of ivory, wood, or plastic lend lustre to the drawing room. A flower-pot and an ash-tray are placed on a stool in the drawing room. Oil lamps and kerosene lanterns have now almost been replaced by electric lights. Yet in every Hindu household a *Nilavilakku* is lit in the prayer room at sunset when the members of the household join together for singing hymns in praise of the Hindu pantheon. Vessels made of stainless steel are in great use today. Ceramic saucers and cups are also used.

The poor people cannot however afford to have so much of furniture in their houses. Their furniture consist mainly of earthern-ware pots, mats, and coir-cots.

Dress

The manner of dressing varies from community to community. But a common link in the way of dressing is simplicity and preference for white garments to coloured or gaudy ones. The men generally wear a *konam,* a small strip of cloth passed between the legs and attached at the front and the back to a string tied round the waist, and a *mundu* or white cloth round the waist, tucked on the right side and hanging loose to the knees. They also sometimes wear a small upper cloth, *torthumundu,* thrown over the shoulder. It is customary for men in their houses to go bare above the waist. On ceremonial occasions the long upper cloth worn by the Namboothiri is twisted round the loins and each leg separately in the fashion called *tattu.* The women generally wear a short cloth round the loins and single long white cloth (*tuni*) tucked round the waist and hanging down to the ground, but while going outside they throw over the shoulders and the bosom another piece of cloth. The *antarjanams* (Namboothiri women) wear an under cloth round the loins and this is passed between the legs. The upper cloth wrapped round the breasts under the arm-pits reaches up to the thighs. Both clothes are white and have coloured or gold-embroidered borders. Men of the Muslim community don *Turkish* fez caps and skull caps and coloured *mundu* tucked and drawn tightly to the left instead of the right hip, while their women-folk wear tightly fitting bodices, a *mundu* and head cloth.

But due to the impact of western culture and contact with the rest of the country the old methods of dressing are fast disappearing. Today a more or less uniform pattern of dressing is adopted by all, irrespective of caste distinctions, though there are exceptions, enabling one to study the old and new methods of dressing. Except among certain sections of the poorer classes and conservatives, *konam* has been almost replaced by underwear or drawers as under garment for men. The *mundu* a piece of white cloth wound around the loins reaches up to the ankle. For the upper part of the body a shirt is worn and this is usually supported by a baniyan. The wardrobe of the modern woman consists of cholis, blouses, jumpers, brassiers, petticoats and saris of five to six yards. Girls have taken to frocks and skirts. Young men in urban areas ape western fashion to a fault. A pair of trousers in combination with the shirt or bush-coat, bush-shirt or jerkins

or American slack forms their usual outfits. The shirt is usually tucked underneath the trousers and the sleeves are rolled up above the elbow.

In spite of the changes in the sartorial habits of the advanced communities the Hill Tribes in the District have still their own old style of dressing. Their common dress even today is a short loin cloth worn loose. Some of the Tribes like the Ernadans of the Nilambur forests wear scanty clothing, and even use plantain leaves when hard up. Some of the women among the Hill Tribes go bare above the waist, though most of them cover their breasts with a piece of cloth, the upper corners of which are fastened to the shoulders. The cloth they wear around the waist reaches midway between the ankle and the knee. Attempts are being made by the Harijan Welfare Department to popularise the use of blouse among these women, and this has helped to foster in them a new attitude towards dress.

Ornaments

Crude and elaborate ornaments were the fashion of the day among all communities till the turn of the century. This was the case in regard to both sexes. While Namboothiri men wore finger rings and waist strings, the *antarjanams* had metal and sometimes silver ear-rings and put on a number of bracelets on their arm from the wrist to the elbow. They were however strictly prohibited from wearing gold ornaments. The ornament-ware of Nair men consisted mainly of gold ear rings (*kadukkans*), finger rings, and waist rings. In child-hood they used to wear bangles and necklaces. The ornaments of the Nair women consisted chiefly of a huge cylinder (*toda*) gold plated, finely worked, and inserted in the lobe of the ear which is distended for this purpose. Several kinds of massive gold necklaces rested on their bosom, while the wrists were adorned by bangles and the fingers and nose by pendants (*mukkuthi*). The men and women of the Hill Tribes have been accustomed to wear necklaces of beads. The men of the Muslim community wear no jewellery except the elassus and rings on the fingers. The jewellery of Muslim women has been of great variety. Necklaces, ear rings, bracelets and anklets are their characteristic ornaments. The rim of the ear is bored into as many as ten or dozen holes in addition to one in the lobe. Nose-rings are not worn by them.

Fashions in ornaments have undergone a great change in recent years with the emphasis now being laid on simple ornaments made artistically and having less weight. Fashion has come to be associated with wearing as few ornaments as possible. Except for certain men wearing rings, men generally do not wear ornaments. For the neck women have a gold necklace with a stone-in-laid pendant, and for the wrist they wear bracelets or bangles made of gold on the right wrist and a watch with gold chain on the left hand. But this is confined to the well to do women belonging to the aristocratic segment of the community. They also consider loading the wrist with bangles of glass, plastic and rubber as out of fashion, though this is still popular with some sections of the middle and lower classes in all communities. A pair of *kammals* or studs adorns the ears of women. Anklets are generally worn by children. On important occasions like marriages women put on more than their usual ornaments. It may be mentioned in this connection that the restrictions now being imposed by school authorities in regard to the wearing of costly dress and ornaments have accustomed many to lead a life devoid of costly and heavy ornaments.

Besides the ornaments mentioned above cosmetics are profusely used by women. The nails of their fingers are polished with cutex, the substitute for the old *mailanchi*. Face powder and eye tex are used by all categories of young women, though rouge, lip-stick and other ultra-modern toilets are confined to the elite.

FOOD

The dietary of the people of the District may be studied on the basis of the two-fold classification of people into vegetarians and non-vegetarians. But this distinction is not very rigid as some of the non-vegetarians take animal food only on certain occasions. The Namboothiris constitute the traditional group of strict vegetarians. They are joined by a host of individuals in the various Hindu communities abhorrent to meat-eating. The Muslims and Christians are as a rule non-vegetarians. The Hill Tribes are also generally not averse to animal food. The Ernadans of Nilambur have a partiality for monkey's flesh, and they shoot monkeys using bows and arrows. "They are not particular as to what they eat, and are on a par with jackals in this respect. They devour snakes

and putrid flesh of various animals".[1] Like the Ernadans, the Kattunayakans of Wynad also eat monkey's flesh. The Paniyas eat ragi supplemented by wild roots and animal food.

Coming to general features, rice is the chief constituent of the people's food. They take two meals a day. The popular items of breakfast are preparations like *Dosa, Idli* etc. prepared from a dough of rice and black gram (*phaseolus radiatus*). The mixture of rice and gram is ground in the wet state to make a virtual paste with water and then allowed to ferment for 8 to 12 hours and then toasted in the pan or cooked in steam. Parboiled rice is often used for this purpose instead of raw rice. The fermented rice dishes like *Idli* and *Dosa* are regarded as nutritiously well-balanced, easily digestible and quite palatable. Other rice preparations for the breakfast include *Pathiri,* (rice cake), *Appam, Idiyappam,* etc. Wheat preparations such as *Barotta, Chappathi, Uppumavu, Poori,* etc. are alternatively used; but *Barotta* consumption is quite often confined to the Muslims. The fermented rice dishes in the morning are usually supplemented by *chutney, mulakupodi, sambar,* etc. The meals are generally taken at midday and at night. The meals commonly consist of rice, ghee, *rasam, sambar, parpatakam,* pickles, and curd or buttermilk. As plentiful fish is available from inland rivers and marine sources, people consume a good quantity of fish. Tapioca with fish is an important menu for the poor people. Sauces made of meat are also very common. On festive occasions these are supplemented by sweet and savoury dishes, fruits and desserts. People usually take tea or coffee soon after rising from the bed. In the evening also they take coffee or tea supplemented by *vada* (a cake made of pulses or blackgram), banana or some such item.

Some of the characteristic features of the dietary of the people peculiar to this part of the country may be mentioned. Parboiled rice instead of raw rice is used by the bulk of the people. In all culinary preparations coconut oil is used instead of gingili oil or mustard oil. The quantity of milk consumed is awfully low, presumably due to the scarcity of cattle wealth. Pickles of mango, lime fruit, nellikka (the fruit of *Phyllanthus emblica*) etc. constitute an integral item of the menu both at lunch and supper. The condiments in almost all culinary

1. *Report on the Socio-Economic Conditions of the Aboriginal Tribes of Madras,* Dr. Ayyappan, p. 105.

preparations consist of pepper, turmeric, ginger, cardamom, cloves, spices, chillies, mustard, asafoetida, onion, garlic, etc. To most curries is added coconut in some from or other.

There are a net work of restaurants and hotels in the urban and rural areas of the District serving the needs of all categories of people. Hot beverages such as tea, coffee, cocoa, bourn vita, horlicks, etc. are served in big restaurants, while in the villages the poor customers are contented with either tea or coffee. Meat and egg preparations such as *biriyani*, *kurma,* cutlet, chops, sand-wiches, soup, omelet, etc. are popular everywhere. During summer the people quench their thirst by cold drinks, *sarbats,* aerated waters like soda or orange squash, etc. Smoking, pan-chewing, use of snuff, etc. are common.

AMUSEMENTS AND FESTIVITIES

There are several amusements and festivities peculiar to Kerala, and particularly to this District. It is remarkable to note that in North Malabar which includes parts of the Kozhikode District has flourished for centuries one of the advanced combat sciences of India—the *Kalari Payattu.* This martial art has produced great heroes whose incredible deeds of valour are celebrated in legends and folk-songs. Though *Kalarai Payattu* was once a comprehensive combat system, it is to-day mainly valued from the standpoint of physical culture. The *Kalari*, or the combat school, is an enclosed rectangular pit, 42 paces long and 21 paces broad, always situated east-west with the floor six feet below the ground level. In the south-west corner is a tiered altar decorated with flowers and wick-lamps and dedicated to *Rana Bhairavi,* the Goddess of War. The initial training is called *Meyyirakkam,* or taming the physique. During the first fortnight the children and youngsters of the *Kalari* are given a special course of massage designed to prepare them to meet all situations of attack and defence. The trainees are given lessons in the use of weapons such as the *Panthiran* and the *Kettukari* (the stick and the stave), the *Kuruvadi* (the short stick), mace, spear, dagger, and sword and shield. A unique weapon in use is the long flexible sword, five feet long, called the *Urumi.* The greatest exponent of this weapon was Tacholi Othenan the great hero of North Malabar who flourished in the 16th century and

whose martial prowess was well-konwn throughout the District and outside. The study of the *marmas*—the vulnerable points of the human system—was confined to the esoteric circle among the trainees. A past master in *marmas*, it is said, can disable, immobilise or even kill an adversary by merely touching, or glancing, at a *marma*. These cardinal points are taught only to disciplined students as the knowledge is to be used only as a last resort for self-defence or against a dishonourable foe. In fact, the *Kalari* system enjoins that the art is to be employed only for noble causes and never for self-advancement. The hey day of the *Kalari Payattu* ended with the dawn of the seventeenth century with its widespread use of guns and cannons. But during the last three decades, it has revived, thanks to the efforts of Kottakkal Kanaran Gurukkal and his chief disciple, Veera Sri C. V. Narayanan Nair. The latter took *Kalari* troupes to big cities in India and demonstrated yet another vital aspect of the nation's proud heritage. In addition to *Kalari Payattu*, there were military pastimes such as *Ankam* (duel) and *Kozhi Ankam* (cock fight).

During temple festivals and on important public and social functions entertainments such as *Kathakali, Koothu, Ottamthullal, Kaikottikali, Mohini Attam*, etc. are conducted. The first impression of a *Kathakali* ensemble on a stranger is its curious blend of elaborateness, incongruity, and dignity. The characters of this dance-drama move with rapid stateliness in a decorated jacket and voluminous skirt and dangling stole. An elaborate head-dress is worn in addition to the distinctive jewelled ornaments such as girdles, loin-chains, necklaces, armlets, bracelets, anklets (loaded to give a tinkling sound in movement), and finger rings. The impressiveness of the actors is made out by the facial make-up especially by the use of masks. But the modern practice is the painting of faces. Every detail of the make-up depends upon the character which the person portrays. The face of a *satvic* character like *Nala* is painted green, while that of a *tamasa* character like *Kali* is painted black. The necessary light for the *Kathakali* stage is provided by an oil lamp about four feet high. The background music is provided by the vertical drum (*chenda*), the horizontal drum (*Maddalam*), the gong, etc. The actors never speak and acting is mainly done by gestures (*mudras*). The themes of the *Kathakali* are generally based

on stories from the scriptures. The *Koothu* is the solo performance of the Chakklar reciting stories from the scriptures and satirically explaining to the audience incidents in contemporary life so as to bring out the moral in them. *Ottamthullal* is a form of dance narrative in which the reciting dancer is accompanied by a singer and a cymbalist. The costume has nothing of the *Kathakali* elaborateness save in the head-dress. *Kaikottikali* is a performance of clapping done exclusively by women. Songs sung and paces taken synchronise with the rhythm of clapping. *Kaikottikali* lends unsual gaiety to *Tiruvatira* and Onam festivals. An allied performance is *Kolattam* wherein songs are sung by young girls to the rhythm of the beating of two sticks. Though *Mohiniattam* is to-day almost extinct, it was a popular performance about thirty years ago. The dance of Mohini was performed by young women under the guidance of *Nattuvan*.

Mention may be made of some of the communal dances conducted in different ways in different localities by various groups of people. *Vattakkali* and *Kolkali* are important communal dances among the Paniyas of South Wynad. There are also communal dances such as *Thira* or *Theyyam* (Devil Dances).

One of the favourite pastimes of the Muslims of the District is the singing of *Mappila Pattu* (Mappila songs). These songs are sung in a distinctive tune and cover a wide range of themes. Though not as popular as the ballads of North Malabar, the *Mappila Pattu* is none the less romantic. The songs are composed in a mixture of Arabic and Malayalam.

In addition to the amusements and recreations mentioned above there are a large number of old time games and sports indulged in by people in their leisure-time, particularly during festivals. One can hardly think of the *Onam* festival without *Kuzhipandu* (ball in the pit). A number of players take part in this game. Pits one foot deep and five to six inches in diameter are made in a row. The players take the position near a pit and the umpire rolls a ball. The player in charge of the pit into which the ball falls picks it up and hits at players who run as soon as the player picks up the ball. If the ball does not hit any player the thrower gets a black mark. Twelve such black marks make him punishable with hits from the ball. A crude type of foot-ball is the *Ottapandu*. A

popular game among boys is *Kuttium kolum*. *Attakalam* is a game of two parties. One party enclosed in a circle formed by another tries to escape.

In recent times the pastimes of the people have undergone significant changes. Newspapers and periodicals have greatly stimulated the reading habit and seem to occupy a prominent place during the leisure hours of the people. The influence of motion-pictures and radio can also hardly be exaggerated.

PUBLIC GAMES AND RECREATION CLUBS

Almost all indigenous games have now been replaced by Western games and sports. For example, there are in-door games such as carrom, table-tennis, draughts, and billiards. Carrom is a popular game within the reach of even the middle-income group. Facilities for playing table-tennis and billiards are provided mainly by organised Clubs and Associations. Though playing cards is a favourite pastime with adults, sometimes it is seen to degenerate into gambling. Out-door games like football, cricket, basketball, volley-ball, badminton, tennis, and hockey are now-a-days common, but they are played mostly by students and members of Sports Clubs. The increasing interest of the public in sports is evident from the big crowds that gather to witness games and tournaments.

The District has a good number of Sports Organisations and Recreation Clubs promoting and participating in sports and games. Names of some of the important athletic associations and sports clubs are given below:—

1. Malabar Cricket Club, Calicut.
2. Kerala Cricket Club, Calicut.
3. Y.M.C.A. Sports Club, Calicut.
4. Kerala Government Polytechnic Athletic Association, Calicut-5.
5. Universal Sports Club, Calicut.
6. The K.M.S. Vyayamasala Sports Club, Calicut-2.
7. The Sait Nagjee Football Tournament Committee, Calicut.
8. The City Companions Sports Club, Calicut-7.
9. The Malabar Hunters Club, Calicut-1.
10. The Young Challengers Club, Puthiyara, Calicut.
11. The Young Gentlemen's Club, Calicut.
12. United Physical Culture Institute, West Hill, Calicut.

13. Youth Association, Puthiyara, Calicut.
14. Kozhikode Gymnasium, Y.M.C.A. Road, Calicut.
15. C.V.N. Kerala Kalari, Nellikode, Kozhikode
16 do. Edakkad Calicut-5.
17. do. Puthur, Calicut-5.
18. do. Elathur.
20. do. West Hill, Calicut-5.
21. do. Paimbalassery.
22. do. Tiruvampadi.
23. do. Karikkad, Manjeri.
24. K.K. Kalari, Kottakkal.

In addition there are the Rotary Club, Calicut, R.M.A. Sports Club, Calicut, Brothers Music Club, Calicut, S.R.R. Club, Panniyankara, Calicut (all in Kozhikode Taluk), Recreation Clubs and Associations at Quilandi, Chemancheri, Payyoli, Perambra and Balusseri in Qulandi Taluk, the Tirur Recreation Club, Tirur and Town Sports' Club, Tirur in Tirur Taluk, the Recreation Clubs at Manjeri, Malappuram and Nilambur in Ernad Taluk and the Recreation Clubs at Vayattiri, Meppadi and Kalpetta in South Wynad.

A notable event in the world of sports in Calicut is the Sait Nagjee Football Tournament conducted every year under the auspices of the Municipality. First held by the Municipality in 1958, it has become one of the popular Football Tournaments of the State.

Pilgrim centres

There are a large number of temples, mosques and churches in the District which attract pilgrims. The Varakkal Temple at West Hill in Calicut city is an important pilgrim centre to which pilgrims from all parts of the Taluk flock on the New Moon day in the month of Tulam (October-November). The deity installed here is Bhagavati. The pilgrims take a holy bath in the sea and perform ancestral rites. The annual festival in the Sreekanteswaram Temple in Calicut takes place on Sivarathri day. The same day is also the festival day for the Maharaja Temple in Calicut. An important festival conducted in Quilandi Taluk is that at Pishari Kavu in Viyyur *amsam* lasting for seven days (from 25th to 31st March) Balusseri Kotta Temple is also a famous pilgrim centre in Quilandi Taluk. In the Ernad Taluk there are three major pilgrim

centres. In the *Vettakorumakan* temple at Nilambur is held the festival known as *Nilambur Pattu* for five days in December-January. *Manjeri Pooram* is celebrated in the Kunnath temple at Manjeri for seven days in March-April. *Kathakali, Ottamthullal* and other dances are the side-lights of the festival. The festival is rounded off by a beautiful display of fireworks. Manjeri has another temple known as the Kalikavu temple where the *Thalapoli* is conducted during April-May with great fanfare. Pilgrim centres in the Badagara Taluk are Ponmeri Temple, Vengoli temple, Kalayampalli temple, Lokanarkavu and Orakattiri Siva temple. The *Tirunavai Arat* in Tirunavai temple in Tirur Taluk attracts a great concourse of pilgrims. It is celebrated for nine days in April. Another pilgrim centre in Tirur Taluk is the Triprangode Siva temple where the *Mahasivarathri* is celebrated for a single day in February-March. Tiyyat is another festival held in Vyrancode Temple, Tirunavai *amsam*. "Tunchan Day" is an important festival held every year at *Tunchan Parambu* in Tirur Taluk.

The religious festivals of the Muslims held in the mosques also attract a large number of devotees. An annual festival called *Malappuram Nercha* is conducted at Malappuram in memory of those Muslims who fell in a fierce engagement with the legion of *Para Nambi,* a Hindu chieftain. The *Nercha* is celebrated for four days in April. Another important festival of the Muslims is the *Kondotti Nercha* held for three days in February-March. Nercha is also conducted at Bettat Pudiyangadi in Talakkad *amsam* and Koottayi in Mangalom *amsam* in Tirur Taluk. The Mambram *Nercha* near Tirurangadi which attracts Muslims from all parts of Kerala and all persons of the locality may also be mentioned in this connection. It is held in memory of Mambram Thangal near his tomb and is held in the month of Muharram once a year.

ECONOMIC AND PROFESSIONAL CLASSES IN RELATION TO SOCIAL LIFE

The most striking change in the social life of the District in recent times is the decline in the importance of caste and the emergence of new economic and professional classes into

greater prominence.[1] A few decades ago the High Caste Hindus had a predominant status in society and the backward classes counted for little. In addition to the caste status enjoyed by a person the extent of landed property owned by him also determined his prestige and standing in the public eye. The Caste Hindus were invariably the land owners and the non-Caste Hindus the landless labourers. Thus the accident of birth and the size of the landholding were two inter-related factors which determined one's importance in society. In recent years there has been a marked decline in the prestige value of both caste and land. The sanctions upholding caste law have weakened. The progress of western education, the influence of social reform movements, the increasing entry of the co-called low Caste Hindus into positions of responsibility in the administrative services, the advent of adult suffrage, the growth of industrialisation, the increasing pace of urbanisation etc. have contributed to the break-down of the old caste laws. The prestige derived by the Upper Caste Hindus from the size of their land holdings is now almost a thing of the past. This is the result of the gradual break-up of the joint family, and the increasing partition of old *Tarawads*. Frequent partitions have led to the disappearance of the large and well-run *Tarawads* of old, and many small and less wealthy families have taken their place. Many young men of old *Tarawads* have left their homes in the wake of partition, and they have come to the urban areas where they are in close contact with the new forces at work in society. At the same time the introduction of tenancy reforms safeguarding the interests of the tenant classes and the consequent difficulties experienced by the old landed aristocracy in evicting their tenants from the holdings have taken away from land much of its fascination as a source of prestige and economic investment. In fact, the agrarian reforms introduced in recent years have deprived the *Jenmis* of most of their power to control the tenants with the result that their prestige and standing in society have suffered heavily.

With the decline in the prestige value of caste and landed property new economic and professional classes have come to the fore. Prestige is now associated with economic classes such as industrialists, owners of factories and bus routes, etc.

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1 Attention is invited to Adrian C. Mayer's *Land and Society in Malabar* which highlights the recent changes in the social life of the people of Malabar.

Affluent business men and industrialists enjoy a greater status and prestige in the public eye than the traditional landed aristocracy. New values and incentives based on industry and commerce have thus taken the place of the old values and incentives based on agriculture and land holding. Side by side with the increasing influence of the economic classes we also find the increasing prestige associated with the learned professions and administrative services. The prestige value of learned professions and salaried Goverment jobs has risen high and this has induced the younger members of most of the old aristocratic families to take to modern education and qualify themselves for entering into the professions and government service. Many of them have done so by effecting the sale of the landed property held by them in the rural areas. Whether or not the income derived from the practice of the professions or employment in government service is adequate, people seem to prefer such income to that derived from land and agriculture. In short, a survey of the social scene shows that the importance of caste and land has been supplanted in recent times by that of wealth, education, and employment, and that the new economic and professional classes have practically displaced the old land owning aristocracy of the upper castes.

APPENDIX—I

VARIATION IN POPULATION IN SELECT TOWNS
1901—61

Name of city and provisional population of 1961 Census (in thousands)	Census year	Persons	Variation	Net variation during the period 1901—51
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Calicut	1901	76,981	..	..
190.0	1911	78,417	1,436	..
	1921	82,334	3,917	..
	1931	99,273	16,939	..
	1941	126,352	27,079	..
	1951	158,724	32,372	81,743
Pantalayini	1901	4,656	.	..
17.3	1911	4,730	74	..
	1921	4,959	229	..
	1931	5,656	697	..
	1941	12,713	7,057	..
	1951	29,001	16,288	28,345
Badagara	1901	10,562	..	..
43.9	1911	13,984	3,422	..
	1921	13,845	639	..
	1931	16,210	2,865	..
	1941	17,838	1,628	..
	1951	23,606	5,768	..
Feroke	1901	9,111	..	..
24.0	1911	9,845	734	..
	1921	11,156	1,311	..
	1931	13,785	2,629	..
	1941	6,249	7,536	..
	1951	19,463	13,214	10,352
Manjeri	1901	3,310	..	..
12.3	1911	3,934	624	..
	1921	4,400	466	..
	1931	7,258	2,858	..
	1941	5,547	1,711	..
	1951	10,357	4,810	7,047
Tanur	1901	7,152	..	..
18.3	1911	8,409	1,257	..
	1921	8,191	218	..
	1931	9,217	1,026	..
	1941	9,370	153	..
	1951	17,883	8,513	10,731
Trikkandiyur	1901	1,629	..	..
13.6	1911	1,972	343	.
	1921	2,092	120	..
	1931	8,232	6,140	..
	1941	9,489	1,257	..
	1951	11,830	2,341	10,201

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Agriculture is the basic occupation of the people of the District. Nature has been singularly kind to Kozhikode; she has endowed her with good rainfall and abundant water resources. The facilities for cultivation are therefore immense, and agriculture absorbs a fairly high proportion of the population of the District. It may be noted that 52.36% of the population earn their livelihood from agriculture and allied occupations.

LAND UTILISATION

Table I gives the classification of land area in the District in 1957-58 and 1958-59.

TABLE—I

Classification of area

	1957-58		1958-59	
Classification (1)	*Area in acres* (2)	*Percentage to the total area* (3)	*Area in acres* (4)	*Percentage to the total area* (5)
1. Geographical area by professional survey	16,38,483	..	16,44,883	..
2. Reporting area by Village Papers	16,34,814	100	16,34,814	100
3. Forests	3,92,172	23.99	4,68,613	28.66
4. Land put to non-agricultural uses	64,883	3.97	64,883	3.97
5. Barren and uncultivated land	1,25,482	7.68	49,041	3.00
6. Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	8,570	0.52	8,554	0.52
7. Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown	1,17,868	7.21	1,21,927	7.46
8. Cultivable waste	1,09,728	6.71	1,09,316	6.69
9. Other fallow land	31,248	1.91	27,605	1.69
10. Current fallows	42,458	2.60	39,658	2.43
11. Net area sown	7,42,405	45.41	7,45,217	45.58
12. Total cropped area	8,36,448	51.16	8,24,109	.50.41
13. Area sown more than once	94,043	5.75	78,892	4.83

The total area under forests, non-agricultural uses, and barren and un-cultivable land was 582,537 acres in 1958-59. This came to 35% of the total land area of the District. It is an area not easily available for cultivation. A remarkable feature of land utilisation in Kozhikode is that the area under miscellaneous tree crops not included in the net area sown is larger than in all other Districts except Cannanore. In 1958-59 it came to 24.7% of the total area under this group in the whole State. The total area under the three classifications "current fallow", "other fallows" and "cultivable waste" came to 176,579 acres in 1958-59. This represents the area which is easily available for cultivation. The percentage of this area to the net area sown in the District was 24. The figures show that there is still much land left in this region which can be brought under the plough. It may, however, be noted in this connection that Kozhikode being the largest District still leads all the rest in the State in respect of the net area sown, the precentage of such area in the District to the total for the State being 16 in 1958-59.

Agricultural holdings

As in other parts of Kerala the pressure of population on the land is very great in the Kozhikode District too, and this has led to excessive fragmentation and sub-division of holdings. This fact has been brought out by the Census of land holdings and cultivation conducted in the Malabar and Travancore-Cochin areas of the State in 1954. It would be interesting in this connection to compare the findings of the Census in respect of the two areas. It is seen that whereas about 67 per cent of the cultivators' holdings in the Travancore-Cochin area was below one acre, only about 30 per cent of the cultivators' holdings in Malabar was below one acre. Moreover, in Travancore-Cochin though a third of the number of holdings exceeded one acre, only 5 per cent was over 5 acres. But while more than two-thirds of the number of holdings in the Malabar area exceeded one acre more than 30 per cent was over 5 acres[1]. Table II gives the statement of the distribution of holdings in the Malabar District classified according to the area owned in ordinary acres at the land Census.

1 It might be relevant in this context to compare the position regarding agricultural holdings in the District with that in the State. 88% of the holdings in the State are less than 5 acres in size while 55% of the total holdings are below one acre each. Only 1.4% are above 25 acres. (Vide *Farmers of India*, Vol. II, I.C.A.R. (1961). page 319.

TABLE—II

Statement of holdings in Malabar District classified according to the area owned (in ordinary acres)

Grade of holding	*Area owned*	
	No. of holdings	*Area (in ordinary acres)*
(1)	(2)	(3)
Up to 1 acres	1,96,680	1,16,249.25
1 to 2.5	1,53,885	2,76,663.00
2.5 to 5	1,22,597	4,53,434.22
5 to 7.5	60,439	3,79,234.26
7.5 to 10	36,798	3,19,868.94
10 to 12.5	25,644	2,85,341.40
12.5 to 15	18,669	2,54,819.26
15 to 17.5	14,116	2,32,864.24
17.5 to 20	10,509	1,96,550.48
20 to 25	11,385	2,55,169.13
25 to 30	7,321	2,00,695.40
30 to 35	5,034	1,72,086.78
35 to 40	3,644	1,36,697.33
40 to 45	2,778	1,19,088.96
45 to 50	2,152	1,02,984.86
50 to 60	2,566	1,26,554.22
60 to 75	2,215	1,46,939.22
75 to 100	1,917	1,64,411.81
100 to 150	1,440	1,75,673.60
150 to 200	486	86,393.68
200 to 300	329	81,666.88
300 to 500	183	73,783.41
500 to 1,000	114	79,038.61
1,000 and above	93	3,45,976.53
Total	6,80,994	47,82,183.47

Though separate figures of the distribution of holdings for Kozhikode are not available conditions prevailing in this District in regard to agricultural holdings cannot be far different from those in the Malabar area as a whole.

IRRIGATION

To a casual visitor the District with its evergreen appearance and rich water resources gives the wrong impression that there is no necessity to provide any irrigation facilities for cultivation. But, as observed by the Malabar Tenancy

Committee (1940) "Those who are personally acquainted with the conditions in Malabar know that though Malabar is blessed with copious rainfall, the average fall being not less than 100 inches a year the rain very often fails at the proper time and crops wither[1]". What is of vital importance to agricultural security is the seasonal incidence and distribution of rainfall rather than its total amount. It is therefore necessary to have irrigation projects for harnessing water and distributing it.

The traditional irrigation system in the District may be divided into two main classes viz. those provided with artificial storage and those dependent throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In Kozhikode we find mostly non-storage systems. The non-storage canals themselves may be divided into two main types—perennial canals and inundation canals. Perennial canals are provided with some arrangements in the vicinity of their heads usually in the form of an obstruction across the bed of the parent stream by means of which they are enabled to obtain their supplies irrespective of the level of the water in the river. On the other hand the supplies from the inundation canals fluctuate with the natural waterfall in the river. Generally these inundation canals obtain a supply only when the parent stream is in flood, and the adequacy of the supply and the area irrigable are consequently dependent on seasonal conditions. The expedient of storing water in the monsoon for use in the subsequent dry weather period has been practised in the District from very early times. In the simplest form such storage works consist of an earthern embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which water collects. Even now it is this system of irrigation that is prominent throughout the District. It is said that all these irrigation works owe their origin to the hey day of the aristocracy. But with economic changes and the gradual decline of the aristocracy very few irrigation works of these types were executed in recent times. On the other hand the existing irrigation works were allowed to decay.

Practically no expenditure was incurred by the Government in connection with irrigation works in the Kozhikode District till recently. The Malabar Tenancy Committee Report (1940) gives the following account of the sad state of affairs in

1 *Report of the Malabar Tenancy Committee*, page 15.

regard to irrigation works in the erstwhile Malabar District as compared with the rest of the Madras Presidency[1]. "There are no Government irrigation works in Malabar, the solitary exception being Vandithode anicut in the east of Palghat Taluk. It was orginally owned by a Palghat Brahman and was taken over by the Public Works Department in 1902 as the owner failed to carry out the required repairs. We find from the report of the Special Settlement Officer in 1930 that the only money expended on repairs since 1902 was a sum of Rs. 3,152 between 1925 and 1927 and that the irrigation channel leading from the anicut was in a bad state of repair in some places. Nevertheless, the Government gets an annual income of Rs. 240 from this source and according to the Settlement Officer, it is a very good return for the small outlay. We understand that since 1930 nothing has been done even to improve this irrigation source which is the only one in the District. .. ..Let us compare Malabar in the matter of irrigation with the other Districts in the Presidency. Take for instance Tanjore, where the density of population is a little more than that in Malabar. The total cultivated area in Tanjore in 1937-38 was roughly 13 lakhs of acres out of a total extent of 23 lakhs of acres. The area commanded by irrigation in Tanjore approached 10 lakhs of acres in 1931 and since that year the Mettur Project has become an accomplished fact and the area now under irrigation must be considerably larger.... .. ..What a contrast to Malabar with its tiny patch of irrigated land on which the Government have spent the paltry sum of Rs. 3,000! The Government have spent about 2,315 lakhs of Rupees on irrigation for the rest of the Presidency, and 14,000 lakhs of Rupees for the whole of India".

Major Irrigation Works

Since the formation of Kerala State irrigation schemes in the Malabar area have received increasing attention. Government have taken up a major irrigation work in the Kozhikode District by name the Kuttiyadi Scheme. The proposal is to construct a dam in the upper reaches of Kuttiyadi river at Peruvannanmuzhi in Quilandi Taluk. This project when commissioned will irrigate an area of about 36,000 acres spread over Badagara, Quilandi, and Kozhikode Taluks. The total estimated cost of the project is Rs. 460 lakhs. The preliminary works for the project are in progress and the execution of the work will be started soon.

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1 *Malabar Tenancy Committee Report*, pages 15 and 16.

Medium Irrigation

As far as Kerala is concerned, Medium Irrigation schemes are those which benefit 200 acres and above, but the cost should be less than Rs. 10 lakhs. Food production is the criterion fixed for taking up these medium irrigation works. The food production is calculated by dividing the total cost of the scheme by the total additional yield of crop anticipated by the scheme. The additional yield is taken as 1|5th ton per acre of the area benefited for the stabilisation of the second crop and 1|2 ton per acre for the 3rd crop.

Medium irrigation works are under various stages of execution in this District. There are 6 such works in Badagara Taluk, 5 in Quilandi Taluk and 3 in Tirur Taluk. The work of constructing a weir cum lock across Kannia canal in Badagara Taluk is nearing completion. The estimated cost of this work is Rs. 2,42,000, and an area of 389 acres will be benefited. The scheme is intended to prevent the ingress of salt water. Another important work under this category is the construction of a weir cum lock across Kadalundi river at Mannathampara in Tirur Taluk and it is nearing completion. The estimated cost is nearly 6 lakhs and the area likely to be benefited is 930 acres. The total cost of the medium irrigation works in the District is estimated at Rs. 14.79 lakhs and a total area of 4,148 acres is expected to be benefited. Five medium irrigation schemes have been completed at a total cost of Rs. 1,32,064. An acreage of 110 will be benefited by these schemes.

Minor irrigation

Under this category are included all storage and salinity control works benefiting an area of less than 200 acres. Government have fixed a criterion for deciding the feasibility of minor irrigation schemes to be taken up for execution. The economic limit viz. cost of the scheme divided by the acreage benefited should not exceed Rs. 400. Minor irrigation schemes will ordinarily be taken up within Block areas according to the priorities indicated by the Block Advisory Committees, and outside the Block areas with the approval of the District Development Council. Generally these works are classified into two categories:—(1) Salinity Control Works, and (2) Storing and diverting water by constructing cross bars.

One of the factors adversely affecting agriculture and public health is the intrusion of salinity in all river courses with the cessation of the monsoon rains. During the rainy season there is plenty of fresh water flowing down and the salt water is kept out of these tidal reaches of rivers and back waters. After the rainy season the flow in the rivers dwindles and salt water slowly creeps inwards and travels 2 to 10 miles. The salinity covers low lying fields and permeates by capillary action into the adjacent high lands. The low lying areas under cultivation are mostly subject to tidal submergence. In such areas cultivation has to be carefully timed and phased sufficiently in advance of saline intrusion so that one crop can be successfully raised. This however is rather a precarious and often fruitless venture. The remedy lies in storing flood flows and releasing the stored waters in a steady and continuous stream. But this work falls in the category of major irrigation schemes. Where the low lying lands are enclosed within clay bunds, saline intrusion takes place by seepage and soakage or by the breach of bunds. To prevent this "Salt exclusion vented cross bars" which form a major part of the minor irrigation works are constructed in these areas.

In this District there are about 83 minor irrigation works falling in the above two categories, and they are under various stages of execution. Of these 12 works are in Badagara Taluk, 15 in Quilandi Taluk, 8 in Kozhikode Taluk, 8 in South Wynad Taluk, 12 in Tirur and 28 in Ernad Taluk. The total cost of these works is estimated at Rs. 13.28 lakhs and 5,330 acres are expected to be benefited. One such scheme, namely, the construction of vented cross bar across Appurath thodu in Punnur Cherupalam amsam of Kozhikode Taluk, has been completed and has started functioning. The cost of this work is Rs. 15,000 and an area of 62 acres is benefited by it, the cost per acre working out to Rs. 242 only. This is a storage work. The construction of a vented cross bar across the thodu in Velimukku *amsam* of Tirur Taluk is another minor irrigation work being carried out to prevent the ingress of salt water. The estimated cost of this work is Rs. 15,000 and an area of 147 acres will be benefited. The work is nearing completion.

Lift irrigation

There are plots of lands spread all over the State which cannot be irrigated by gravity flow. Such lands can be brought under irrigation by lifting water from the reaches of rivers

where fresh water is available or from fresh water lakes or ponds. Lift irrigation thus forms an essential part in the pattern of irrigation development in the State. There is only one Lift Irrigation Scheme under execution in this District viz. "Installing a pumpset at Irimbiliyam in Tirur Taluk". The estimated cost of this work is about Rs. 2 lakhs and the scheme when completed will irrigate 600 acres of land. However detailed investigation of two more Lift Irrigation Schemes, namely, the Lift Irrigation Scheme at Chekuthankundu and the Nayadampuzha Lift Irrigation Scheme has been completed and they will be taken up for execution in 1961-62. The estimated cost of the two works is Rs. 9,78,000 and Rs. 94,000 respectively, and the area that will be benefited by them is 3,400 acres and 237 acres respectively. In addition the following Lift Irrigation Schemes are at various stages of investigation:—(1) Lift Irrigation Scheme at Kodinhi in Tirur Taluk, (2) Lift Irrigation Scheme at Trikkulam in Tirur Taluk, and (3) Lift Irrigation Scheme at Ullanam *amsam* in Tirur Taluk.

Area under irrigation

Kozhikode had only 1.08% of the net irrigated area in the State in 1957-58, and 1.61% in 1958-59. The percentage of the net area irrigated to the net area sown in the District was 1.2 in 1957-58 and 1.9 in 1958-59. Table III shows the sources of water supply and area irrigated (in acres) from 1956-57 to 1958-59.

TABLE—III

Sources of water supply and area irrigated

Sources	*Area irrigated (in acres)*		
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Canals:			
Government	3,368	3,368	3,368
Private	2,092	2,126	2,131
2. Tanks	1,4C1	1,816	1,816
3. Wells	1,506	1,506	6,434
4. Others	358	398	3,98
Total	8,725	9,214	14,147

Table IV shows the area in acres of crops irrigated in the District from 1956-57 to 1958-59.

TABLE—IV

Area irrigated under major crops

Crops (1)	Area irrigated (in acres) 1956-57 (2)	1957-58 (3)	1958-59 (4)
1. Rice	16,575	16,142	26,008
2. Other food crops (Cereals, millets, pulses, sugarcane etc.)	5,588	4,817	4,827
3. Non-food crops	4,952	946	946
Total	27,115	21,915	31,781

It may be seen from Tables III and IV that there has been a substantial increase in the area irrigated in the District during the period 1956-59.

Soil conservation

Water and wind are the two active forces causing soil erosion in the District. Erosion by wind occurs generally in the coastal areas where there is no protective vegetation over the land. Erosion by water assumes a special significance in the District as rainfall is heavy and cultivation rampant in slopes and undulating lands. The soil has to be protected from exhaustion. Surface soil is often washed away. Gullies are formed. Plant foods are lost. Sometimes clefts are formed. When water rushes, the level of underground water is lowered. The catchment basin of the rivers has to be protected from the point of view of irrigation in the plains. The denudation of forest areas as a result of ruthless cutting, grazing and brousing also leads to soil erosion. . But the most important reason is the undulating topography of the land. Along with these the intense precipitation and indifferent soil management practices in the dry land areas have also resulted in soil erosion. The general slope of the lands in the District varies from below 5% (1 in 20) in the plains to over 100% (1 in 1) in the upper reaches of streams and mountains.

A statement showing the total area worked and expenditure incurred in connection with soil conservation activities is given in Table V.

TABLE—V.

The area covered and expenditure incurred in connection with soil conservation work till March 31, 1961

Scheme No. (1)	*Name of Scheme* (2)	*Extent* (*in acres*) (3)	*Area covered* (*in acres*) (4)	*Expenditure* (*in Rs.*) (5)
XXX	Bhoodan Colony	1,000	447	27,537
XII	Edakkara I	1,260	574	41,231
XIX	Edakkara II (Manimooli)	317	205	12,059
XXIV	Bethel Colony	275	252	7,325
XXVII	Danagram Colony	36	20	2,020
	Total	2,888	1,498	90,172

Water potential and schemes for further exploitation

According to the data collected by the authors of the Master Plan, immense possibilities exist in the rivers of the District for irrigation, navigation etc.[1] The most important scheme taken up for investigation is the Kuttiyadi Scheme, which has already been dealt with earlier. The other important schemes are mentioned below:— (1) *Beypore Puzha Irrigation Project*. This is a barrage proposed to be constructed across Beypore river at Ariyakod in Ernad Taluk. The project is estimated to cost 2.94 crores and when completed will

1. In November 1957 the Government of Kerala appointed a special staff under the Chief Engineer, General and Irrigation, to investigate the water resources of the State and to prepare a Master Plan for their utilisation. A small Advisory Committee consisting of the Chairman, Kerala State Electricity Board, the Chief Engineer, Kerala State Electricity Board, Chief Engineer, Irrigation, the Superintendenting Engineer, Water Resources Circle and the Investigation Division Officer for the Electricity Board, was constituted to scrutinise the Plan. The Master Plan which took shape covers all possible schemes for the utilisation of the river waters of Kerala. It envisages a total outlay of Rs. 500 crores split up into two phases, the first phase from 1961 to 1971 costing Rupees 210 crores and the second from 1971 to 1991 costing Rs. 290 crores. The report on the Plan was published in 1958 as a book under the title *"Water Resources of Kerala: An Advance Report"*. The details of the schemes proposed for the Kozhikode District can be had from pages 79-109 of the book.

irrigate a total area of 18,000 acres. (2) *Maruthipuzha reservoir scheme in Ernad Taluk*. This scheme will benefit an area of 15,900 acres when completed and the approximate cost of the same will be Rs. 255 lakhs. (3) *Karimpuzha reservoir scheme in Ernad Taluk*. The anticipated ayacut of this scheme is 5,000 acres and the estimated cost Rs. 135.3 lakhs. (4) *Beypore Kanjirapuzha Scheme*. The scheme is proposed to irrigate an area of 2,450 acres and the approximate cost will be Rs. 60 lakhs. (5) *Olipuzha reservoir scheme*. This scheme will benefit an area of 15,500 acres and the approximate cost wil be Rs. 180 lakhs. This scheme forms a part of the flood control works proposed for the Kadalundi river.

AGRICULTURE

Soils

Agriculture depends among other things on soil condition.[1] The District may be divided into plains, midlands and mountains with an undulating topography. The soils of the District are of two major types: Sandy loam and loam with laterite sub soil and parent material. The following is the broad classification of soils in the District[2]

Laterite—Major part of the District barring coastal area.
Sandy—Coastal strip.

On a taluk-wise analysis it is seen that laterite soils cover the entire area excepting the western portions of Tirur and Quilandi Taluks and a narrow strip on the western side of Kozhikode Taluk, which are covered by sandy soils. The coast is low and sandy, with occasional laterite patterns. In the narrow coastal belt the soil is sandy. The soils of the plains belong to the red ferruginous type composed of a mixture of clay and river sand. They are classified as red clay, red loam and red sand. Red loam is the prevailing soil. Clay is found in areas inundated by monsoon and in beds of shallow lakes and lagoons. The light sandy soils of the coast are alluvial deposits of sand slightly impregnated with silt found in the shores of backwaters and near the mouths of the rivers. In Wynad (highland) the soils are of red ferruginous types, the fertility varying with the quantity of carbonaceous matter formed by the decomposition of organic substances. The black and blackish soils derived from the forest

1. See Chapter I, Geology for details.
2. Source: Department of Statistics.

washes are highly fertile. Paddy, pepper, coconut, cashew, etc. are the main crops here. The important fruits grown are banana and mango.

Area under cultivation and average yield of major crops

Kozhikode has 14% of the total area under food crops in the State.* Rice, tapioca, coconut, cashew, pepper, banana etc. are the most important crops raised in the District. The details showing the acreage of each crop and their percentage to the total cropped area are given in Table VI.

TABLE—VI

The area under Crops

Name of crop	Area in acres		Percentage to total cropped area	
(1)	1957-58 (2)	1958-59 (3)	1957-58 (4)	1958-59 (5)
Rice	2,76,573	2,77,923	33.08	33.72
Jowar	141	110	0.02	0.01
Ragi	7,922	3,083	0.35	0.37
Other cereals and millets	1,020	2,996	0.36	0.36
Tur. (Red gram)	5,300	5,341	0.63	0.65
Other pulses	8,791	8,485	1.05	1.03
Sugar	1,953	1,755	0.23	0.21
Black pepper	31,353	31,585	3.75	3.83
Chillies	1686	1,892	0.20	0.23
Ginger	6,360	6,388	0.76	0.78
Turmeric	2,550	2,393	0.30	0.29
Cardamom	1,781	2,600	0.21	0.32
Arecanut	39,010	35,236	4.67	4.27
Other condiments and spices	2,401	2,250	0.28	0.27
Mango	21,406	19,962	2.56	2.41
Fruits of citrus variety	1,043	..	0.12	..
Bananas	19,904	18,710	2.38	2.27
Other fresh fruits	14,741	17,020	1.76	2.07
Cashewnuts	11,674	12,375	1.40	1.50
Other dry fruits	935	30	0.11	..
Tapioca	30,703	40,134	3.67	4.87
Sweet potatoes	3,832	3,875	0.46	0.47
Other vegetables	9,856	6,895	1.18	0.84
Sesamum	3,823	1,699	0.46	0.21
Coconut	2,50,884	2,36,295	30.00	28.67
Other oil seeds	1'		..	..
Fibres	60	350	0.01	0.04
Tobacco	67	90	0.01	0.01
Tea	9,351	9,801	1.12	1.19
Coffee	26,440	26,787	3.16	3.25
Rubber	30,462	35,600	3.64	4.32
Other plantation crops	2,781	2,556	0.33	0.31
Fodder crops	25	19	..	
Green manure crops	615	314	0.07	0.04
Other non-food crops	13,974	9,820	1.67	1.19
Total	8,36,448	8,24,109	.	..

* Kerala has 67.26 per cent of the total cropped area under food crops.

Table VII shows the total out-turn of principal crops in the District during 1957-58 and 1958-59.

TABLE—VII

Total out-turn of principal crops in 1957-58 and 1958-59

Sl. No. (1)	Name of crops (2)	1957-58 (3)	1958-59 (4)
1	Rice	1,03,900 Tons	1,05,119 Tons
2	Jowar	30 ,,	20 ,,
3	Ragi	2,020 ,,	2,136 ,,
4	Other cereals and millets	600 ,,	595 ,,
5	Pulses	2,214 ,,	2,393 ,,
6	Sugar cane	139 ,,	139 ,,
7	Pepper	2,520 ,,	2,496 ,,
8	Ginger dry	2,270 ,,	2,293 ,,
9	Turmeric dry	911 ,,	855 ,,
10	Cardamom	32 ,,	46 ,,
11	Arecanut	2,126 Million nuts	1,920 Million nuts
12	Banana	12,678 Tons	9,317 Tons
13	Other plantations	45,675 ,,	45,875 ,,
14	Cashew nuts	7,300 ,,	7,738 ,,
15	Sesamum	410 ,,	183 ,,
16	Coconut	702 Million nuts	661 Million nuts
17	Cotton	10 Bales of 392 lbs. each	90 Bales of 392 lbs. each
18	Tobacco	34 Tons	50 Tons
19	Tea	7,378 ,,	4,842 ,,
20	Coffee	4,986 ,,	4,445 ,,
21	Rubber	2,124 ,,	2,403 ,,
22	Lemongrass oil	92,437 bottles of 22 oz. each	4,32,718 bottles of 22 oz. each
23	Tapioca	86,400 Tons	84,229 Tons

MODE OF CULTIVATION OF IMPORTANT CROPS

Paddy (*Nellu*) (Oryza sativa Linn)

The Kozhikode District has the second largest area under paddy in the State. In 1958-59 it was 34% of the total cropped area in the District and it represented 14.6% of the total area under paddy in the State. Paddy is ordinarily cultivated as a semi-aquatic crop and it can be grown from sea level up to an altitude of even 5,000 feet. It can also be raised on a wide variety of soils. It is also cultivated under varying. conditions in the different areas of the District. The first crop is the *Viruppu* and is purely rainfed. *Mundakan* is the second crop and it is only partly rainfed. The third crop,

Punja depends almost entirely on irrigation facilities. The major portion of the land is under *Viruppu*. The position in 1958-59 was as follows.[1]

	Areas in lakhs.
1. *Viruppu*	2.08
2. *Mundakan*	1.04
3. *Punja*	0.05
Total	3.17

Viruppu

The first crop *Viruppu* is sown under dry conditions[2]. With the pre-monsoon showers the land is prepared by ploughing and paddy seeds dibbled behind the plough or sown broadcast and covered by ploughing and planting. This is done in April-May. In the low lying *Viruppu* fields transplantation takes place in June-July. When the plants are about one month old weeding is done and sometimes a dose of nitrogenous fertiliser is applied. The practice is to apply organic manures such as cattledung or compost and phosphate manures etc. In certain cases bonemeal is broadcast by hand over the field and the land ploughed. The crop is harvested in August-September.

Mundakan

In this system, paddy is either broadcast or transplanted during August-September months. In the heavy soils of the deltaic areas, the crop is invariably transplanted. Dry seed is sown directly under rainfed conditions, while sprouted seed is sown in the puddle when swamp conditions exist. Direct broadcasting of paddy seed under swamp conditions is adopted only when necessitated by special local conditions. The usual practice is that as soon as the first crop is harvested, the land is ploughed six to eight times and green manure ash or compost manure is applied. Sometimes bonemeal is also used

1. Source: Department of Agriculture.
2. There are certain ceremonial observances at the first sowing of paddy in the year observed by those who are agriculturists by profession. The village astrologer or *Kaniyan* is consulted to fix an auspicious day for turning of the first sod of the season. (Vide *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, pp. 98-99).

as basal dressing and when transplanting is done. After the first dressing, top-dressing with urea or ammonium sulphate is given wherever possible. In certain areas, sprouted seeds are sown in well prepared fields in which ash, cattledung, compost, green leaves etc. are ploughed along with bonemeal. Weeding is done when the plants are one month old. The crop is harvested during December-January months.

Punja

The third crop, punja, is restricted to small low-level areas where water supply is abundant during the summer months between January and May. Punja cultivation takes place on a small scale in the Tirur and Ernad Taluks, particularly in the Nilambur, Manjeri and Kondotti areas. The out-turn is usually small, and the punja proves costly, especially as the varieties grown yield little profit.

Special methods of cultivation

There are some special modes of rice cultivation evolved to suit local conditions. They are briefly described below.

Modan system of cultivation

This is a form of dry cultivation. A well-established rotation of crops is a noticeable feature of dry cultivation. *Modan* is grown on the low hills of the District or near the coast among the young coconut plants in new plantations. The rotation is usually modan, gingelly and samai, but on the best lands, a ginger crop frequently precedes the *modan*. The preparation of land for *modan* cultivation begins usually in August and between that month and the sowing of the crop in the following April, the land is ploughed well a number of times. The seed is sown with ashes and cattledung and the crop is reaped in September. Gingelly is then put down and harvested in December or January. The samai is raised in the following May and June and the land is then allowed to lie fallow for two or three years according to cultivation.

Punam system of cultivation

The term *"Punam"* is applied to cultivation on the forest clad hills and on the slopes of the Ghat. A patch of forests is cleared and burnt. A crop of hill paddy is raised mixed with millets, and plantains. The ground is then left fallow for some years. The cultivators are generally hillmen. They move from one forest to another to repeat the process. The

seed is sown in April and beyond occasional weeding the crop requires little attention. It is reaped in September. Fencing is often done to keep away wild animals. As the virgin soil is wonderfully rich, there is usually a bountiful harvest.

Varieties of paddy

The District grows a number of varieties of paddy which are known by different local names among the agriculturists. Major Walker in his treatise on the Land Tenures of Malabar (1801) observes, "There is grown in Malabar upwards of fifty kinds of *nellu* or paddy, which have different periods of reaping and sowing and which are distinguished by the natives for their different qualities".[1] The position has not yet changed. The Agriculture Department has however evolved a few improved varieties and some of them have proved popular. The more important local as well as improved varieties grown in the District are given below:—

A. LOCAL VARIETIES

Season	*Variety*	*Duration*
1. *Viruppu*	1. Aryan	145 days
	2. Ponnaryan	135 „
	3. Thavalakannan	130 „
	4. Cheriya Aryan	110 „
	5. Parambuvattan	150 „
	6. Thekkancheera	100 „
	7. Vattan	120 „
	8. Poothala	120 „
	9. Vedandam	140 „
2. *Modan*	10. Chuvanna Modan	110 days
	11. Chennallu	110 „
	12. Katta Modan	120 „
3. *Mundakan*	13. Vellari	140 „
	14. Kumbalon	140 „
	15. Chitteni	125 „
4. *Punja*	16. Thekkan Cheera	100 „

1. *History of Kerala*, Vol. I, K. P. Padmanabha Menon, p. 98.

B. IMPROVED VARIETIES

Season	Variety	Duration	Average acre yield	Percentage increase over ryot's crop
1. *Viruppu*	1. P.T.B.* 1 (Aryan)	145 days	3,000 lb.	15.0
	2. P.T.B. 2 (Ponnaryan)	135 ,,	2,500 ,,	15.0
	3. P.T.B. 9 (Thavalakkannan) *(White Rice)	130 ,,	2,500 ,,	13.0
	4. P.T.B. 23 (Cheriya Aryan)	110 ,,	2,000 ,,	48.1
	5. P.T.B. 25 (Thonnooran)	120 ,,	2,000 ,,	46.0
2. *Modan*	6. P.T.B. 28 (Kattamodan)	120 ,,	1,000 ,,	20.0
3. *Mundakan*	7. P.T.B. 4 (Vellari)	140 ,,	3,000 ,,	13.0
	8. P.T.B. 12 (Thekkan Chitteni)	125 ,,	2,500 ,,	12.7
	9. P.T.B. 20 (Vadakkan Chitteni)	125 ,,	2,500 ,,	44.7
	10. P.T.B. 21 (Thekkan)	125 ,,	2,500 ,,	13.8
	11. P.T.B. 27 (Kodiyan)	130 ,,	3,500 ,,	11.9
4. *Punja*	12. P.T.B. 10 (Thekkan Cheera)	90-100 ,,	2,500 ,,	15.0

In Wynad Palthondi and Marathondi (WND 1 and WND 2) are the common strains used. P.T.B. 10 is a short duration all season strain and has already won the confidence of the ryots.

Other cereals and millets

This includes ragi, jowar, etc. Of these ragi (finger millet, *Eleusine coracana*) is the only largely cultivated

(*) P.T.B. stands for the strain of paddy evolved in the Pattambi Agricultural Research Station.

cereal in the District. Among the Districts of Kerala Kozhikode stands first in the area under ragi as well as its production, but it is only one of the minor crops grown in the District. Ragi is widely cultivated in the tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Unlike rice it can be grown in practically all the 12 months of the year. It can also be grown on a wide variety of soils, from the very poor to the very fertile but it thrives best on good arable land where the soil is a well drained loam or clay loam.

Chillies.

Chillies are grown in the District. The area under the crop was 1,686 acres in 1957-58 and 1,892 acres in 1958-59.

Vegetables.

Among the vegetables the most important are tapioca and sweet potatoes. The District occupies the second place among the Districts of the State in regard to the area under sweet potatoes.

Tapioca (Manihot utilissima pohl)

In 1958-59, Kozhikode had 7% of the total area under tapioca in the State, the percentage of the area to the total cropped area in the District being 6%. The crop was introduced here with a view to getting over the shortage of grain production. It is held that this tuber crop produces 2½ times more calories and energy food than any cultivated cereal from the same extent of land.[1] So tapioca is used as a subsidiary food by vast sections of the people. Moreover, tapioca flour is suitable for manufacture of starch and sago, though now only a limited quantity is used for these purposes. Tapioca thrives in all kinds of soils. The District is cultivating a large number of indigenous and exotic varieties of this crop. It is grown by planting portions of the stem cut into convenient pieces six to eight inches long. Planting can be done throughout the year. Generally cultivators select the beginning of the rainy months as the best time. The plant has to be protected from weeds. Organic manures and wood ash are generally used to manure the plant. Tapioca is generally cultivated in rotation with other crops like pulses and cereals. The duration of the crop varies from six to ten months while the yield varies from place to place. On an average it is about

1. *Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture, Madras*, p. 1399.

6,000 to 7,000 lbs. per acre. The peak marketing season for tapioca is January, June-July, August-September, and December.

Fresh fruits.

Mangoes and bananas are the most important of the fresh fruits. They are grown extensively in the gardens attached to dwelling houses.

Mangoes (Mangifera indica)

The mango is well known as the most delicious of Indian fruits. It is grown in abundance all over the District. In regard to the area under mango Kozhikode occupies the third place among the Districts of the State. The mango tree is an evergreen tree blossoming from February to April according to situation, the fruit ripening from May to July. There are several varieties. Some of them are good for curries and pickles. The Olur, one of the earliest to fruit in the country, is a heavy bearing variety of Kozhikode District. It goes even to the distant markets of North India, mainly because of its early appearance in April-May. The village of Kuruvattoor near Kunnamangalam is particularly famous for the Olur mango. The mango tree is propagated by planting seeds. Grafting is also now very common. The wood of the mango tree is used as fuel and for building canoes and sometimes for houses and furniture.

Banana (Musa Pradisiaca Linn and Musa Sapientum)

This fruit called in ancient Sanskrit literature the "fruit of the wise men" is grown in plenty everywhere in the District. Kozhikode occupies the second place among the Districts of the State in regard to the acreage as well as the total out-turn of the crop. Besides the perennial varieties like *Mysore poovan, kannan, poovan, kadali, chingan* etc. which are grown in the compounds attached to the houses and farm steads, the *nendran* variety of banana is grown on a large scale in wet land areas. The common perennial varieties grow to a height of about 20 feet in the tropical forests of Wynad with no artificial irrigation while the height is reached only in rare cases in the plains even under irrigation.[1] The *nendran* variety is invariably grown as an irrigated crop in high level single crop paddy fields. It is also planted

1. *Madras Bananas*, A Monograph, p. 1.

on the low banks of rivers and in forest clearings. It is used in a variety of ways. There is hardly any marriage or other auspicious occasion in which the banana plant in bunches does not grace the festival *pandal*. Its popularity as a decorative plant is evident from its inclusion in the design of the paper currency of India. "This fruit, in all the various dishes into which it is turned in the Malabar cuisine, is a *sine qua non* at the banquets of the Malayalee population of the Malabar coast during their festivals".[1] Banana thrives well in lands with heavy rainfall of even distribution under partial shade. The shoot is planted usually by about the end of October. It thrives best on organic manures such as compost, etc. The plant takes about eight months to flower and three months or more for the fruits to mature. The period of the *Onam* festival i.e. August-September, is the season for banana.

Other fresh fruits include jack, tamarind, pappaya, pine-apple etc.

Dried Fruits-Cashewnut (*Anacardium Occidentale Linn*)

Cashewnut is the most important of the dried fruits.[2] It was brought to Kerala from Brazil by the Portuguese nearly 400 years ago. Although first introduced for the purpose of checking soil erosion,[3] the cultivation of this crop has gained great commercial importance during the last quarter of a century. The tree is grown for its fruits which are known as cashewnuts. The cashewnuts are processed to obtain the oil and inner kernels which have great commercial value. The cashew tree thrives on any soil. It is drought resistant. It is met with practically in all parts of the District, but the Taluk of Ernad is the most important. The cultivation of this crop depends on seasonal rains, and a regular monsoon therefore becomes an essential condition for the successful cultivation of the crop. At present, no systematic method is adopted for the cultivation of cashew. The tree is grown in gardens and home-compounds interspersed with mangoes. coconuts and arecanuts. Invariably it is grown in the corners of numerous house-compounds and out-lying areas which are considered as unsuitable for the growing of any other crop.

1. *Madras Bananas*, A Monograph, p. 42.
2. For details regarding cultivation etc. see Chapter IV—*Trichur District Gazetteer*.
3. *Report of the Spices Enquiry Committee*, p. 100.

The cultivation is simple and does not consist of any elaborate preparatory, or after-cultivation operation. The tree generally begins to bear fruits three or four years after planting. The raw nuts are converted into kernels and exported.

Oil seeds.

The important oil seeds are coconut and sesamum. Of these coconut is the more important.

Coconut (Cocos Nucifera Linn)

Among the Districts of the State, Kozhikode has the largest area under coconut cultivation. From the point of view of production also the District occupies the highest position. In 1958-59, Kozhikode had 20% of the total area under coconut in the State, the percentage of this area to the total cropped area in the District being 29%.

The coconut tree was introduced into Malabar between the dates of the *Periplus* and Cosmos, the first and the sixth centuries A.D.[1] It has been the wealth of Malabar for ages. Purchas speaks of it as "the most profitable tree in the wiorld".[2] Marco Polo describes the nut "of the size of a man's head, containing, an edible substance that is sweet and pleasant to the taste and white as milk. The cavity of this pulp is filled with a liquor clear as water, cool and better flavoured and more delicate than wine or any other kind of drink whatever". Every part of the coconut tree is utilised in one way or other in our national and domestic economy. The raw nut and the edible copra are important articles of food and indispensable items of divine oblation at religious functions. Oil obtained from the copra is used in cooking, manufacture of vegetable ghee, soaps and toilet articles. The oil cake is extensively used as cattle food. The water or milk of the tender nuts is indeed a refreshing drink. The husk yields coir fibre out of which a variety of products like yarn, mats, brushes etc. are manufactured. The shell is often burnt and converted into charcoal which is highly essential for the manufature of gas masks. Ladles are made out of the shell and also decorative articles by skilful workmanship. Shell art-ware with their exquisite carvings is an eagerly sought for item by collectors of curios. The trunk of the tree is useful

1. *History of Kerala*, Vol. IV, p. 424.
2. Ibid p. 425.

as timber and the leaves are used in thatching roofs, and making baskets, mats, brooms etc. The sweet juice got by tapping the unopened spathe (flower bunch) is an invigorating drink. This can also be converted into jaggery (palm gur). The apples inside the germinating nut and tender crown are eagerly sought for delicacies which are also believed to have exceptional nutritive and medicinal properties. The juice from the kernel is a substitute for milk. Indeed there is no tree on the face of the world which has such a variety of uses. It is no wonder that it has had the distinction of being called "*Kalpavriksha*" or "The Paradise Tree" for many centuries.

The coconut tree thrives and yields well in black clayey soils.[1] It is also successfully grown in pure sandy soil where there is supply of moisture in the sub-soil. Palms standing on bunds of rice fields yield well. However, the largest area in the Kozhikode District is on red laterite soils which are deficient in phosphate, potash and lime. This accounts for the comparatively low yield of nuts. There are several varieties based on the variations in colour, shape and size of the nuts, fullness of the crown etc. But however the variety grown largely in the District as elsewhere in the State is the tall variety which is hardy and yields copra, oil, and fibre of good quality. Seedlings are planted in pits just before the outbreak of the South-West monsoon. Planting is often done in a haphazard manner. The seedlings are usually fenced to prevent cattle trespass. No systematic and judicious manuring is done. The time required for coconut trees to come into bearing differs according to the different varieties of the tree and the nature of the soils in which they grow. However, under favourable conditions, the trees commence to bear in eight to ten years after planting. On an average they bear vigorously for about 30 years and then begin to decline. The nuts are plucked six to eight times in the year.

Research work on important problems pertaining to the coconut is being carried on at Nileswar in the adjoining Cannanore District for the last two decades and this has considerably helped the ryot of the District to improve his methods of cultivation.

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1. For details regarding cultivation see Chapter IV, *Trichur District Gazetteer*.

Sesamum (Ellu).

The area under sesamum in 1958-59 was 1,699 acres. It is sown in the months of December and January after paddy is harvested. The crop is harvested in the months of March-April. The oil is used for domestic and industrial purposes.

Plantation crops.

The major plantation crops of the District are (1) Tea, (2) Coffee, and (3) Rubber.

Tea (Camillia thea Linn).

Kozhikode accounts for over one fifth of the total production of tea in the State. The tea plant is said to be a native of Assam. It was introduced in the Wynad region by Messrs. Parry & Co., who grew it for many years on their Porindoth Estate. The failure of cinchona gave an impetus to its cultivation and since 1892 many coffee estates have been converted into tea gardens. Extensions are still under way, for tea does well in many parts of the District, especially Wynad.

In 1958-59, Kozhikode had 9.5% of the total area under tea in the State, the District standing second among the Districts of the State both in acreage and production. Tea is usually cultivated at altitudes ranging from 3,000 feet to 5,000 feet above mean sea level. It thrives well in light friable soil of good depth through which water percolates freely. After removing the forest growth planting is done. The actual spacing of the plants will depend on the lay-out of the land. They are usually planted in square, rectangular, or triangular patterns. Usually 3,000 plants are planted in an acre. "Hedge Planting" (planting in rows 5′ apart with a spacing of 2′ between the bushes in a row) is also done in new estates. Planting will begin in June or July. When the plants are about two years old and five to six feet high they are pruned to stimulate lateral growth and to develop them into a bush. Plucking is usuallly done by women and chidren. The young and freshly sprouted leaves with "two leaves and a bud" are plucked. Plucking is done throughout the year in various rounds. The average yield of a good estate is about 1,000 lbs. of prepared tea per acre.

Coffee (Coffea arabica and Coffea robusta).

Coffee is believed to have been brought to India over two centuries ago by a Muslim Pilgrim named Bababudan.[1] The cultivation of the coffee plant was introduced by Mr. Murdock Brown in his plantation at Anjarakandi in Wynad at the end of the 18th century. The venture prospered and gradually estates sprang up all over the then Wynad Taluk. The first serious check to the industry was given by the borer, *Xylotrechus quadrupes*, which in 1865 destroyed whole estates. Soon after a remedy for its ravages had been found, the fungus *Hemeleia Vastatrix* made its appearance and by 1875 had devastated the whole crop. There has been some improvement since, and coffee is still the staple product of Wynad Plantations even though the present position is that it pays only on the most favourably situated estates and only with most careful cultivation.

In 1958-59 Kozhikode had 66.86% of the total area under coffee in the State, the District standing first in the State both in acreage and production. Coffee is a tropical plant. Several species of it are known but only two are popularly grown viz. *Coffea arabica* and *Coffea robusta*. *Coffea arabica* was the earliest introduction and produces a superior quality beverage, though susceptible to diseases. "Its foliage resembles that of the Portuguese laurel; the small white blossom is not unlike that of the jessamine in form and scent; the berries are at first dark green, changing as they mature to yellow red and finally deep crimson. Beneath the skin of the ripe berry, or 'cherry' as it is called, is a mucilaginous, saccharine, glutinous pulp, closely enveloping the 'beans' .... these beans are coated with a cartilagineous membrane known as 'parchment', and beneath this by a very delicate semi-transparent jacket, termed the silverskin".[2] *Coffea robusta* is a more recent introduction and is sturdier and more vigorous. It has more powers of resistance against extremes of climate, and pests and diseases.

Coffee is generally cultivated in high altitudes ranging from 1,500 to 6,000 ft. above mean sea level. The most suitable altitude is between 2,500' and 4,500'. The plant needs a well distributed rainfall of about 60 to 80 inches per annum

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1. *Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture*, Madras, p. 641.
2. *Malabar District Gazetter*, Innes, p. 225.

and a distinct rainy and dry season with a minimum average temperature of 70°F[1]. Coffee requires sandy soils or clay loam with a good sub-soil drainage system. It is usually grown from seed. It is also propagated from cuttings from mature trees or shoots. Propagation from seeds is usually done in January or February in well prepared nursery beds. When the plants are twenty inches in height they are finally transplanted. The spacing between each plot is ordinarily eight to nine feet. The plots are manured well and watered frequently. In the second method of propagation, lower branches of the trees are bent down under the earth for at least four months so as to enable new roots to sprout up from these branches. Shade trees are provided in coffee plantations for protection of the trees from the full blast of the sun and for soil conservation. Usually the coffee plants are pruned at an height of 15' to enable easy plucking of the berries. Coffee plants begin to bear fruit within 5 to 7 years of planting. The colour of the berries is green at first. It slowly changes to golden and then to bright red. These red cherries are plucked up by hand. Several pluckings are necessary before a crop is completely harvested. Under good climatic conditions a coffee plant yields 1|2 to 2 lbs. of green coffee in a season. Good yields may be obtained from a plant for a period of 20 to 30 years. Excessive rains or want of rains in the blossoming season will adversely affect the yield. Foreign buyers of coffee are mainly European countries of which Germany and Italy are important. The Soviet Union is a new entrant in the field.

Rubber (Hevea Brasiliensis).

Kerala holds the monopoly for rubber cultivation in India, and Kozhikode is one of the important rubber producing Districts of the State. In 1958-59 the District had 35,600 acres of land under rubber cultivation. This represented 13.2% of the total area under rubber in the State. Rubber is a plant usually grown in the tropical belt lying between 15° North and 10° South of the equator, and usually at an altitude of 1,000 feet above sea level. A warm and humid climate is necessary. The annual rainfall should be between 80 and

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1. *Report of the Plantation Enquiry Commission*, 1956. Government of India, p. 5.

120 inches, and should be well distributed. A stiff alluvial soil which is neither too steep nor too swamp is suited for cultivating rubber.[1]

SPICES AND CONDIMENTS

The spices of Kerala have always attracted the attention of foreign nations and it was in fact the desire to enrich themselves by trade in these articles that brought European nations to India. The District is famous for its spices. The most important among them are black pepper, ginger, turmeric, and cardamom. The foreign exchange earned through the export of these spices is considerable. The more important of them are briefly described below.

Pepper (Kurumulaku) (Piper nigrum Linn).

Of all the spices of Kerala pepper is the most famous. It was "the magnet which drew first the Moors and the Portuguese to Malabar". It was called "Malabar money and was the chief attraction for the European nations to trade with the East. When the Dutch took pepper saplings from Malabar in the 18th century to plant in Sumatra, the Zamorin, expressed the hope that Malabar's supremacy in pepper would be invincible"[2].

Kerala produces 98% of the total production of black pepper in India. In 1958-59 Kozhikode had 14.1% of the total area under pepper, the District standing third both in area and production among the Districts of the State. Being a rain-fed crop, pepper grows best where there is an average rainfall of about 80 inches. It grows in places with altitude less than 3,000 ft. The suitable soils for pepper cultivation are clay loam, red loam or sandy loam soils, the first being the most suitable. The crop is propagated vegetatively by means of cuttings. Jack and mango trees are commonly used as supports for the vines. On a plantation basis they are planted at a distance of 10' apart. The vine is rarely allowed to grow beyond a height of twenty feet lest the picking of the pepper berries should become difficult. The vines begin to bear after three years of planting. The harvesting period is from December to March. The berries are allowed to dry in the sun in

1. The subject will be treated in detail in the *Kottayam District Gazetteer*.

2. *Report of the Malabar Tenancy Committee*, p. 14.

mats for a week till the colour becomes black. Sometimes the skin of the ripe berries is removed before drying. This kind of pepper is known as white pepper and is produced only in limited quantities. The yield mainly depends upon the fertility of the soil and the locality. Usually in an acre there will be 300 to 400 standards, where pepper is cultivated on a plantation scale. The dried black pepper is graded and packed, usually in double gunny bags. It is mainly exported to United States of America and United Kingdom.

Ginger (Dry) (Inchi) (zingibar officinale rose)

Ginger is a valuable article of export from Kerala. Marco Polo refers to its production in great quantity along with pepper and turbit and "the nuts of India" (coconut). Regarding the exports from Malabar, it is worthy of note that, "in the detail of 3 cargoes that arrived in Lisbon in September 1504, we find the following proportions:—Pepper, 10,000 *cantars,* cinnamon, 500; cloves, 450; z.z (i.e. Zen Zaro, ginger), 130; lac and brazil, 730; camphor, 7; cubebs, 191; mace, 2½, spikenard, 3; lignaloes, 1⅓[1].

In 1958-59 Kozhikode had 1,388 acres under ginger, the District standing second in area as well as production among the Districts of the State. Ginger cultivation has been expanding yearly in almost every Taluk, but Ernad produces the most and its ginger is the best. The methods of cultivation are simple and the chief factors in the success of the crop are well-drained sandy clay loam, red loam or laterite soils and a timely rainfall. Operations begin in the first week of May. The ground is cleared of stones, stubble and the rank growth of the previous monsoon, and is then ploughed six times. Towards the end of the month the rhizomes are planted out in raised beds 12′ long by 2′ broad, separated one from another by shallow trenches. In these beds shallow pits, about 4″ square, are made at intervals of a foot, and in each pit a rhizome is placed on a small quantity of cattle manure. The rhizomes are then covered lightly with earth, and are protected from the sun by a covering of leaves and branches. Chembu is often grown as a mixed crop. Six weeks later fresh leaves and branches are put down, and the opportunity is taken to weed the beds, and by heaping up the mud round the edges to repair the ravages wrought on them by the heavy rains of the first monsoon. After another six weeks, in September, the process is repeated and the covering of leaves and branches renewed.

1. Marco Polo, Vol. II, p. 391.

The rhizomes mature in the month of Dhanu (December-January), and are hoed up. The yield is generally eight to ten times of the seed rate. But usually in Kerala the average yield of ginger (dry) is about 1,000 lbs. per acre. There is a Ginger Research Scheme working at Ambalavayal where research work relating to varieties is being done.

Turmeric (Curcuma longa Linn).

The following is the description of this plant as given by Drury[1] "According to Rumphius, the Javanese make an ointment with the pounded roots and rub it over their bodies as a preservation against cutaneous diseases. The root is considered a cordial and stomachic, and is prescribed by native doctors in diarrhoea. It is also an ingredient in curries. There is a wild sort which grows in Mysore; the natives consider turmeric in powder an excellent application for cleaning foul ulcers. The root in its fresh estate has rather an unpleasant smell, which goes off when it becomes dried; the colour is that of saffron and the taste bitter. Mixed with juice of the Nellikai, it is given in diabetes and jaundice. The juice of the fresh root is anthelmintic, and the burnt root mixed with Margosa oil applied to soreness in the nasal organs. The root is applied by the Hindoos to recent wounds, bruises, leech-bites etc."

In 1958-59, Kozhikode had 22.6% of the total area under turmeric in the State, the District standing second in area as well as production. It is found to grow well in the humid tropical region of the District including tracts which are about 4,000 feet above mean sea level and also in comparatively hotter and drier regions of the plains. It is grown as a rain fed crop either pure or as an inter-crop in coconut plantations. Manuring of the land prior to planting is necessary. The mother rhizomes or 'bulbs' are invariably used for planting, cut longitudinally into two pieces, taking care to see that there is at least one sound "eye" on each piece. Planting is usually done in April to July. Different varieties of turmeric are not known, through differences in the appearance and quality of the produce are very marked. Harvesting commences in March and continues till the end of April. The Malabar variety is reputed to have better medicinal properties particularly for cold and catarrh[2] The number of figures vary from ten to forty

1. *History of Kerala*, K. P. Padmanabha Menon. Vol. IV, p. 409
2. *Spices Enquiry Committee Report*, p. 83.

in a plant and the average yield per acre ranges from 2,000 to 5,000 lbs. of cured turmeric. The fresh rhizomes have to be cured by boiling and dried for marketing. Before turmeric is exported, it is polished and coloured.

Arecanut (Areca catachu L).

Among condiments and spices, the arecanut or betelnut tree is the most important. Unlike other commercial crops, it occupies a special position in so far as its cultivation is essentially in the hands of poor farmers with small holdings generally not exceeding an acre in extent. It is grown in the same localities as the coconut and the process is almost the same. In the alluvial tracts it is grown in coconut plantations as a minor produce, while in the laterite regions extensive plots of lands are devoted exclusively to it.

In 1958-59 the District had 28.4% of the total area under arecanut in the State, the District leading all others in this respect. The palm grows well in soils which can retain an optimum moisture and requires plenty of shade. Usually banks of rivers, valleys between hills, hill slopes and homesteads in the District are planted with arecanut. It is a perennial crop. The palm has a tall, erect, unbranched stem, very graceful, often reaching a height of about 60′ or even more. The seed may be sown either directly in the garden (in situ) or by raising seedlings and transplanting them after they have grown in the nursery for periods ranging from six months to two years. Transplanting is more popular in the District. Usually the seeds are gathered from very old trees. The planting of the seedlings is done in the rainy months from June to September. The spacing adopted varies from place to place ranging from 6′ x 6′ to 12′ x 12′. However, 500 to 600 trees are seen planted in an acre. Arecanut requires more watering and manuring than the coconut palm. The practice of manuring is prevalent only in certain places. Wood ash, green leaves and cattledung are used. The arecanuts are harvested when they are tender or fully ripe. The tender nuts are harvested for the preparation of '*kalipak*'. The harvesting season starts from June and extends up to December. That for ripe nuts commences in October and extends up to March. The cost of arecanut cultivation is not prohibitive and hence many have taken to it as a profitable undertaking.

Crop calendar.

The calendar of agricultural operations for some of the important crops in the District is given in Table VIII.

TABLE—VIII

CALENDAR OF AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS J

	Crop (1)		Sowing (2)	Harvesting (3)	Peak marketing (4)
1	Rice	Autumn (Viruppu)	April-June	August-October	SePtember-October
		Winter (Mundakan)	August-October	December-February	January-February
		Summer (Punja)	January-March	April-May	May-June
2	Ragi	1st Crop	April-July	August-October	SePtember-October
		2nd Crop	September-October	December-January	December-January
3	Small millets (Samai)	Kharif	May	August	August
		Rabi	September	December	December
4	Ginger (raw)		April-May	November-January	December-January
5	Pepper		..	November-January	December-February
6	Sesamum	1st crop	February-March	June-July	July-August
		2nd Crop	August-October	December-January	December-January
		3rd crop	December-January	March-April	April-May
7	Cotton		August-September	February-March	February-March
8	Sweet Potatoes	1st crop	June-July	September-October	September-October
		2nd crop	September-October	December-January	December-January
		3rd crop	November-December	February-March	February-March
9	Turmeric		April-May	December-January	January-February
10	Lemongrass		..	June-September	September
11	Taploca	1st crop	October-November	August-September	Augst-September
		2nd crop	March-May	November-January	December-January
		3rd crop	July -September	May-July	June-July

J Source . Season and Crop Report. Kerala State. (1957-58 and 1958-59).

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS

Buchanan has given sketches of the agricultural implements used in Kerala 160 years ago. The same type of implements without the slightest modifications are in use to-day and for all we know, the same types were in use centuries before the Englishman's visit. Regarding the methods of cultivation prevailing in the District early in this century the *Malabar District Gazetteer* observes as follows.[1] "The Malabar ryot is a practical agriculturist whose methods are traditional and are not progressive. His implements are few in number and rude in construction, but they have the advantage of being light and cheap, and answer his purposes sufficiently well". The agricultural implements used at present include the local plough, spades of different pattern, rakes, and levelling planks. The chief tillage implement is the wooden plough. It consists of a tongue of wood fitted with an iron tooth, a stilt for holding, and a pole to be attached to the necks of bullocks or buffaloes. The plough is usually worked by one man and a pair of bullocks. It makes 'V' shaped furrows leaving ridges of unploughed land. The area covered is only 1|3 to 1|2 an acre a day. The plough is also incapable of inverting the soil due to the absence of the mould board. Moreover it leads to considerable waste of energy. The Department of Agriculture has designed certain types of iron plough to suit local conditions. But only very rarely does one see an improved or mould board iron plough being used. This is mainly due to the fact that the initial cost of an iron plough is high.

Next to plough, the most important tillage implement used by the cultivators is the *maram* or levelling board. This is a heavy wooden plank generally drawn by bullocks or buffaloes to level the land. The scooped surface of the plank runs over the clods and crushes them. The *maram* is used both in dry and wet seasons.

The spade is the most important hand tool in use. It is locally called the *mammatti* or *kaikot*. It is used for agricultural operations like digging mulching, earthing up etc. There are various kinds of them to suit local conditions. Even though hand weeding is the rule a small digger with an iron blade and wooden handle is used for weeding in some parts. The soil between the spaces of the plants is stirred by different

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer,* Innes and Evans, p. 209.

kinds of hoes. Worn out *mammatties* are also used for inter-cultivating, weeding, and mulching up dry crops. The principal tool for harvesting is the sickle with a serrated cutting edge and a wooden handle. This is mainly used for harvesting paddy and for cutting fodder. Table IX gives the number of agricultural implements and machinery used in the erstwhile Malabar District in 1951 and 1956.[1]

There is considerable scope for improvement in agricultural implements according to the modern concepts of soil science. However, the indigenous plough still continues to be the main implement of cultivation. It is associated with the work of the farmer for generations and it is not therefore easy to replace it. The iron plough is also more expensive. It is too heavy to be carried to the field and drawn by his poor animals. "The mould board which forms a part of all iron ploughs which helps to invert the soil does not fit in with his mode of turning at headland".[2] While much of the above is seemingly true, many ryots will not find it difficult to operate iron ploughs once they surmount the initial inertia

MANURES

The use of farmyard manure is as old as agriculture, and ancient treatises like the *Kerala Kalpam* record the usefulness of wood ash, bones and refuse materials for increasing soil fertility and improving crop production. These manures and the recently introduced 'chemical' fertilisers seek to increase the fertility of the soil. The different kinds of manures available and used in the District may be classified under the following three heads: (a) bulky organic manures (b) concentrated organic manures and (c) artificial or chemical manures. The common bulky organic manures are cattle dung, farmyard manure, compost and green manure. In this group the largest source of supply is cattle. Dr. Burns has given the daily manure production for cattle at 40 lbs., for buffaloes at 50 lbs. and young stock at 20 lbs.[3] On this basis, the cattle population of the District according to the 9th quinquennial Census 1961[4] will produce 1,68,83,250 lbs. of cattle manure. Allowing

1. Separate figures for Kozhikode are not available.
2. *Rural Problems in Madras*, S. Y. Krishnaswami, p. 191.
3. *Technological Possibilities of Agricultural Development in India*, p. 116.
4. The figures are provisional.

TABLE—IX.

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS IN THE MALABAR DISTRICT

Year	Ploughs		Carts	Sugarcane Crushes			Oil engines with pumps for irrigation purposes	Electric pumps for irrigation purposes	Tractors			Persian wheels	Ghanis		
	Wooden	Iron		Worked by power	Worked by bullocks	Total			Government	Private	Total		Five years and more	Less than five years	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1951	2,76,792	525	12,327	86	550	636	442	65	..	..	18	..	76	..	76
1956	3,05,074	1,343	11,167	52	249	301	704	40	11	57	68	..	109	274	383

for a waste of two-thirds, the available quantity for manuring purposes may be estimated at 1,12,55,500 lbs. (5,516 tons). Oil cakes, bone meal and by-products of marine fishing, wood ash etc. form the chief source of concentrated organic manures. Oil cakes are rich in nitrogen and phosphoric acid. Their application is usually to commercial or money crops like plantain but now their use is being extended to paddy crop as well. Fish manures consist of dried fish unfit for human consumption, fish guanos, the cake left after pressing the fish oil, pitted fish and offal, and other refuse from fish curing yards. Among the other natural sources of manure, the most important is wood ash, the product of burning fuel in the millions of hearths in peasant's homes distributed all over the District. It is very difficult to frame an estimate of the quantity of wood ash available in this way. However, the agriculturists take special care to see that proper preservation of wood ash is made in their houses. This actually forms the main source of manure in the District. Among the artificial or chemical manures are the ammonium sulphate, urea, sodium nitrate, super phosphate, potassium sulphate, etc. The soil survey of the District reveals that phosphatic fertilisers for the tract must always be accompanied by liberal doses of lime to fix the phosphoric acid and maintain it in an available form.[1]

Agricultural pests and diseases.

Insect pests and plant diseases cause serious loss to agriculture. There is a paucity of data on the extent of the damage caused to crops by pests and diseases. The pests or diseases do not occur with the same intensity and virulence every year. Many pests and diseases affect the cereal crops which occupy the largest area among cultivated crops in the District. The most important pests and diseases, the nature of the damage caused by them, and the remedial measures which may be adopted by the cultivators are given below.

1. *Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture*, Madras, p. 708.

Name of crop and pest or disease	Nature of damage	Control measures
A. PEST.		
1. *Paddy*.		
Paddy leaf roller (*Lepidoptera-pyralidae*).	The caterpillars damage by folding the leaves and feeding on the green matter from within. Leaves get dried up.	Dust B.H.C. 5 per cent or spray D. D. T. 0.2 Per cent
Rice bug (*Coleoptera-Chrysomelidae*) *Hispa armigera*	Appear in the field during ear bearing season and damage the crop by sucking the milky juice of tender grains which become chaffy in consequence.	1. Collect nymphs and adults and destroy them. 2. Dust with 5 per cent or 10 per cent B.H.C. at the rate of 10-15 lbs acre.
Rice case worm (*Lepidoptera-Pyralidae*) *Nymphula depunctalis*	Adult is a small white moth with brownish markings on wings. Caterpillars damage paddy plants by defoliation.	Dust 10 per cent B.H.C. or 5 per cent D.D.T. or spray 0.2 Per cent D.D.T.
2. *Tea*		
Tea mosquito (Capsidae) *Helopeltis antonii*	The bugs puncture and suck sap from the tender shoots and leaves and cause them to curl up, fade, and dry up. It is the most serious pest of tea.	Spray D.D.T. 0.2 per cent Endrin 0.25 per cent or Parathion 0.25 per cent.
Leaf caterpillars (About 7 species of caterpillars attack tea of which the slug caterPillar-*Heterosia Virescensis* is the most important).	..	Dust B.H.C. 10 per cent.
3. *Coffee*.		
Coffee white borer (Cerambycidae) *Xylotrechus quadripes*.	Eggs are laid in cracks and crevices on coffee stem. The grubs tunnel within bark and stem. Larval period is about 9 months. The branches and stems bored by the grubs die.	Spray B.H.C. 0.25 per cent or Endrin 0.25 per cent at the time of egg laying.
Green and Red bugs (Coccidae) *Lecanium Viridae Saissetia hemispherica*.	The green bug is more destructive. Plants infested by them lose their vigour and get covered with sooty fungus growing on sweet fluid secreted by the bugs.	Spray Parathion 0.05 per cent.

Name of crop and pest or disease	Nature of damage	Control measures
4. *Ginger*. Shoot borer *Dichocrocis punctiferalis*	Attacks the growing shoot and kills it.	Spray B.H.C. 0.05 per cent a few rounds.
5. *Coconut* Rhinoceros beetle *Oryctes rhinoceros*	It bores into the unopend leaves of the tree cutting and chewing the tender foliage. The leaf surface is thereby considerably reduced, it retards the growth of the palm, and reduces the yield of nuts. Quite often the spath is also attacked and the inflorescence is destroyed thus directly preventing the production of nuts. Sometimes the beetle may cause death of the palm by attacking and destroying the growing point. Palm attacked by the rhinoceros beetle is also open to infestation by red palm weevil and bacterial and fungal pathogens.	1. Keep the plantations free of dead and decaying coconut and other trees. 2. Spray manure heaps with B.H.C. 0.2 per cent to prevent breeding of beetles. 3. Use breeding traps to attract and kill beetles and grubs. Keep cowdung and decomposing organic matter at various places in the garden. Spray these heaps once in three months with B.H.C. 0.2 per cent- 4. Extract beetles from the crown with the beetle hook. Fill the hole with mixture of 5 per cent B.H.C. and sand. 5. Fill the inner leaf axils with mixture of B.H.C. 5 per cent, Chlordan 5 per cent and clay.
6. Black headed Caterpillar (Xyloryctidae) *Nephantis serinopa*	The caterpillar causes extensive damage to the leaves of coconut palms, especially along the coastal and back water areas. Due to the attack, the vitality of the infested tree is lost, resulting in low yields.	1. Spray D.D.T. 0.2 per cent. 2. Liberate the pupal parasite Trichospilus pupivora and the larval parasite Perisierola nephantidis, in infested plantations.
7. *Banana* Banana aphid *Pentalonia nigrone vosa*.	Attacks directly and indirectly by transmitting the Pathogenic virus resulting in the dreadful bunchy top.	Spray Parathion 0.05 per cent.
B. *Disease*—		
1. *Mango*: Dieback or Pink Disease *Corticium Salmonicolor*.	The affected twigs and small branches wither and dry up from the tip downwards.	1. Cut and remove the affected twigs. 2. Spray 1 per cent B.M. and manure the trees

Name of crop and pest or disease	*Nature of damage*	*Control measures*
2. *Banana*		
Bunchytop caused by a Virus transmitted by the Banana aphid *Pentalonia nigronarvosa*.	The leaves of the severely infected plants are bunched together, the top of the pseudo-stem assuming a rosette shape. The plants become stunted with narrow and short brittle leaves which stand more erect than normal. The leaf stalk do not elongate and are crowded at the apex.	1. Eradicate infected plants. 2. Exclusion of diseased suckers and enforce domestic quarantine. 3. Dust or spray the healthy plants with insecticides to get rid of the aphids.
3. *Coconut*:		
Leaf rot *Helminthosporium halodes Gleosporium Sq. Gleocladium Sq.*	Blackening and shrivelling up on leaf tips. On maturing this breaks off. Young leaves also get infected. The tree gradually weakens and the yield is reduced.	Spray 1 per cent B.M. or any Copper fungicide. Cultural and manurial operations should be done carefully. Liberal doses of potash should be applied.
4. *Arecanut*:		
Mahali or Nut fall *Phytophthora* palmivora	Rotting and premature shedding of green nuts during June-August.	Spray bunches with 5-5-50 B.M. before the monsoon and again in July.
5. *Pepper*:		
Wilt *Phytophthora Sp.*	The leaves of the affected vines turn yellow, wither and drop off.	Use resistant varieties. Isolate infected vines by digging trenches. Drenching the soil around the infected vines with 0.05 per cent wettable ceresan solution.

ACTIVITIES OF THE AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT TO POPULARISE THE USE OF SCIENTIFIC METHODS OF AGRICULTURE

The Agriculture Department has been carrying on manifold activities for the promotion of scientific Agriculture in this District. There are two wings of the Department, namely, Extension wing and Research wing. The District Agricultural Officer is responsible for all the work on the extension side. The main functions of the Extension wing are to supply improved seeds to the agriculturists and bring the whole area under paddy under improved strains, to supply improved implements, fertilizers, and manures, to attend to plant protection work, to advise the ryots about improved and advanced agricultural practices, to take prompt control measures against pests and diseases, etc. The Research wing is engaged in research work on the above aspects.

Improved seeds

Under the scheme for paddy seed multiplication and distribution an attempt is being made to popularise the growing of improved varieties of paddy and to saturate the entire rice area with superior varieties. There are two State Seed Farms in this District intended for the multiplication and distribution of improved strains of paddy among the cultivators. They are located at Chokkad in Ernad Taluk, and Cheruvannur in Kozhikode Taluk. It is proposed to start one more Seed Farm during the first year of the Third Five Year Plan. The foundation seeds produced at the State Seed Farm are further multiplied through primary Seed Farms organised in the holdings of registered growers. The seeds so produced are procured by the Department, and further distributed to growers for replacing the local strains. The programme is to cover the entire paddy area with improved seeds.

Improved implements

The distribution of agricultural implements and plant protection equipments is another important activity of the Department in the District. Iron ploughs, Japanese hoes, sprayers, dusters and various other kinds of agricultural implements were distributed by the Department. There is also a scheme for the subsidised sale of plant protection equipments.

Fertilizers and manures

The distribution of fertilizers and manures is another important item of work connected with the drive for increasing the production of food. Till recently fertilizers were distributed from Government Depots by the Agricultural Assistants and Extension Officers and also by private firms. Now the manures and fertilizers are distributed by the Fertilizers and Chemicals Travancore Ltd. (F.A.C.T.) and other private companies. The distribution of Government fertilizers is entrusted to the F.A.C.T. There is a Fertilizer Officer working in the District under the F.A.C.T. There are 3 central depots and 44 sub depots of the F.A.C.T. in the District for the distribution of fertilizers. Private firms such as Kerala Chemical Fertilizers, Stanes & Co., Shaw Wallace & Co., and Mysore Fertilizers are also in the field.

Compost development

Another major activity of the Department is connected with compost development. In view of the short supply of nitrogenous fertilizers and the difficulty of importing them, it is felt necessary to exploit fully all manurial resources locally available. Cattle dung and organic wastes of all kinds are converted into compost manures by improved scientific processes. Night soil and sweepings collected from the Kozhikode and Badagara Municipalities and Panchayats are being converted into compost manure by the adoption of scientific methods of composting. The Agricultural Assistants, Agricultural Extension Officers, Compost Inspectors, Fieldmen, and Gramasevaks are given certain targets which they are expected to fulfil.

The Green Manure Scheme envisages the distribution of green manure seeds, both of the perennial and seasonal varieties. Among the perennial varieties the seeds of *Glyricidia maculata* and *Indigofera teyesmania* are distributed for paddy and coconut cultivation. Intensive propaganda work is carried on by the Agriculture Department in the District for the popularisation of green manure growing. The Glyricidia Month for popularising *Glyricidia maculata* is being celebrated for the last few years with good response.

Plant protection

The Department takes timely measures for the control of pests and diseases. The incidence of severe attack of pests

and diseases on crops in the District is very common. There is a plant protection staff in the District to take prompt and quick control measures to eradicate pests and diseases on crops and also to take prophylatic measures to prevent the attack. The Plant Protection Scheme in the District consists of socking a sufficient number of dusters and sprayers to be given to cultivators to combat pest attacks as also stocking and distributing adequate quantities of insecticides and fungicides from suitable centres to cultivators. These equipments and chemicals are stocked at different centres in the District namely in the Offices of the Agricultural Assistants, Agricultural Extension Officers, and Gramasevaks. Plant Protection equipments are distributed to bonafide cultivators at subsidised rates.

The Plant Protection Assistant in the District makes periodical observations on the incidence of pests and diseases and organizes effective control measures. There is a Parasite Breeding Station in the District under the control of the District Agricultural Officer. This station is meant for breeding Eulophid and Bathylid parasites. These parasites are released on coconut trees to control the attack of the pest Nephantis Serinopa. A total number of 5,72,000 parasites were released till October 1961 and the pest in 665 acres under coconut area in the District was effectively controlled.

Improved agricultural practices

The problem of optimising agricultural production in the District is one of qualitative improvement of crops and quantitative increase of yield per acre. With this end in view the Japanese method of paddy cultivation is given top priority in the activities of the Agriculture Department. The advantages of adopting Japanese methods of cultivation are brought home to the ryots by establishing personal contacts with them, by conducting group discussions, arranging distribution of leaflets, etc. Demonstration plots are established in all parts of the District. The plots are started on privately owned lands. The owner of the land has to do all preliminary cultivation operations, use improved seed, plant the crop in lines, do inter-cultivation, and bear all the expenses connected with harvesting and threshing. As a result of the work of the Department the Japanese method of paddy cultivation has become very popular in the District. The total area brought under the Japanese method of cultivation up to 1960 was 89,635 acres.

Agricultural Engineering

Agricultural Engineering activities are being carried on in the Districts of Palghat, Kozhikode, and Trichur under the control of the District Agricultural Officer, Kozhikode. The Agriculture Engineering Section under the charge of the Agriculture Engineering Supervisor who has his headquarters at Calicut attends to the following items of work. (1) Land development and mechanical cultivation by the use of tractors and bull dozers, and (2) facilitating irrigation by installation of pumpsets etc. All necessary help is rendered to the ryots by the staff of the section in matters pertaining to agricultural engineering.

Research Stations, Nurseries, etc.

The Department bestows special attention in the field of research with a view to increasing agricultural production and improving the quality of agricultural products. There are two Agricultural Research Stations in this District, one at Ambalavayal in South Wynad and the other at Koothali in Badagara Taluk. The former was started in 1945 with 240 acres. The annual rainfall (average) in the station is 90" and the soil is red loam. Agronomic research on paddy, tapioca, ginger, yam, banana, mandarin oranges, pine apple, lemon, pepper, cardamom, coffee, cocoa, camphor, vanilla, eucalyptus, and cinnamon is done here. Paddy seeds, rooted pepper cuttings, lemon cuttings, ginger, etc. are distributed to the cultivators. The Agricultural Research Station at Koothali was started in 1958. It covers an area of 120 acres. The annual rainfall in the farm is 150" (average). The soil is virgin. Intensive research on crops other than paddy is done in the farm. There is an Arecanut Nursery in the farm for the distribution of Arecanut seedlings to the cultivators.

There is a Coconut Nursery at Tikkoti for the distribution of good quality coconut seedlings to the cultivators. There are 24 Coconut Demonstration Plots in the District.

As already stated there are two State Seed Farms, one at Cheruvannur (Kozhikode Taluk) and the other at Chokkad (Ernad Taluk) for the distribution of improved paddy seeds to the cultivators.

There are thirty certified Arecanut Nurseries in the District sponsored by the Indian Central Arecanut Committee.

There is also a Soil Testing Laboratory for conducting soil analysis and giving advice to the ryots about the manurial requirements of their fields.

The Department takes an active interest in the annual celebration of *Vanamahotsava* which is designed to impress upon the people the necessity to plant trees, especially fruit trees. A Market Intelligence Service for the purpose of collecting and disseminating information in regard to market arrivals, prices etc., is functioning under the Marketing Section of the Agriculture Department in this District. The Departmental monthly magazine *"Kerala Karshakan"* is popular among the agriculturists.

State Assistance to Agriculture

Very little is known about the early history of state assistance to agriculture in the District. *The Malabar District Gazetteer* observes as follows. "No advantage is taken in the District of the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) or of the Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884)."[1] But it is seen from the *"Memoirs of the Agriculture Department, Madras"* (1954) that loans were granted to ryots for improving the land, for fitting up agricultural machinery, and for similar purposes. The loan rules were liberalised in 1933 and the Agriculture Department was entrusted with the work of granting loans free of interest up to Rs. 80 per applicant for the purchase of seeds and manures and Rs. 100 for the purchase of implements. These loans were repayable in two annual instalments along with the land assessment and were collected by Revenue Officials. The amounts allotted for the grant of loans were limited, but large amounts were ear-marked for this purpose from 1943 onwards with the object of furthering the Grow More Food Campaign. A large number of ryots took advantage of the facilities provided. Now the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agricultural Loans Act provide the framework for the grant of these loans. Table X shows the details of the Takkavi loans granted during 1956 to 1961.

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1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, Innes and Evans, p. 209.

2. *Memoirs of the Agriculture Department*, Madras, p. 1396.

TABLE—X

Table showing the details of the agricultural loans granted during 1956 to 1961

Taluk	Amount of Rs. sanctioned under the Land Improvement and Agricultural Loans Acts.					
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1970-61	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ernad	43,700	23,930	25,450	29,500	20,000	1,42,630
South Wynad	N.A.	3,000	35,200	32,000	4,850	75,050
Badagara	14,910	32,000	60,000	16,000	36,400	1,59,410
Kozhikode	43,200	21,320	25,670	N.A.	N.A.	90,190
Quilandi	19,380	59,240	75,310	38,000	31,600	2,22,530
Tirur	16,800	34,540	43,500	N.A.	N.A.	94,840
Grand Total	1,36,990	1,74,080	2,65,130	1,15,500	92,850	7,84,650

Besides a sum of Rs. 3,39,990 was given as loan from 1958 to 1961 in Tirur Taluk for raising additional paddy crops.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Agriculture in the District is mainly dependent on cattle labour. Cattle are required for cultivating land, for lifting water from the wells, and for carrying the produce from the field to the market. The Royal Commission on Agriculture (1928) stated that "in India the primary purpose of cattle is draught for the plough or the cart. Without the ox no cultivation would be possible, without the ox no produce could be transported". It is difficult to determine the exact monetary value of cattle labour. The investigation into the cost of cultivation of crops carried out by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research (now the Indian Council of Agricultural Research) showed that 15 to 25 per cent of the cost of cultivation is contributed by cattle labour. But this does not take into consideration the value of cattle as an important factor in maintaining soil fertility. In addition there is the profit derived from the hides, skin, horn and hoof of dead cattle.

Livestock population and prices

The provisional figures of the livestock population of the District as per the Census of 1961 are given in Table XI.

TABLE XI

STATEMENT OF LIVESTOCK POPULATION (1961 CENSUS PROVISIONAL FIGURES)

Category (1)	*Provisional Census figures* (2)
Cattle:	
Males over 3 years:	
1. Used for breeding only	1,179
2. Used both for breeding and work	5,218
3. Used for work only	97,802
4. Others	6,094
Total	1,10,293
Females over 3 years:	
1. Breeding.	
(a) In milk	60,582
(b) Dry and not calved even once	1,00,845
2. Working	3,407
3. Others	5,998
Total	1,70,832
Young Stock:	1,26,663
Buffaloes:	
Males over 3 years:	
1. Used for breeding only	432
2. Used both for breeding and work	2,435
3. Used for work only	28,327
4. Others	1,442
Total	32,636

(1)	(2)
Females over 3 years:	
1. Breeding.	
(a) In milk	9,618
(b) Dry and not calved even once	11,,355
2. Working	2,062
3. Others	912
Total	23,947
Young Stock	8,792
Total Buffaloes	65,375
Sheep	4,301
Goats	2,07,467
Horses and Ponies	1,352
Other Livestock	12,533
Total Livestock	6,98,816
Poultry	13,55,543

The above figures may at first sight appear impressive. But the productive value is not commensurate with the numbers because of the poor quality of the livestock. This is apparent even from a superficial inspection of the village stock which looks underfed and emaciated.[1] The District is not a cattle breeding tract and it does not possess any special grade of cattle of its own. The west coast cattle though not of any particular breed are a class by themselves.[2] The cows and bullocks are of small country types and are stunted in growth. However, in common parlance the cattle are divided into different types according to the locality to which they belong. Draught cattle of good quality are very often imported from the neighbouring Districts, and from the bordering States of Mysore and Madras. The imported cattle are Sindhis, cross bred cows, murrah buffaloes, graded murrahs etc. No cattle is exported from the District. The livestock prices for the year 1958-59 are given in Table XII.

1. *Rural Problems in Madras,* S. Y. Krishnaswami, p. 191.
2. *Report on the marketing of milk in India,* 1941, p. 17.

TABLE—XII

Statement of Livestock prices

Type	*Price*
A pair of bullocks	Rs. 300 to 1,200
Milch cows (local)	Rs. 120 to 300
Milch cows (cross bred)	Rs. 600 to 1,400
Sindhis	Rs. 500 to 900
Local graded sindhis	Rs. 400 to 600
Buffaloes local Graded murrahs	Rs. 700 to 1,200
She goat Tellicherry	Rs. 100 to 150
Buck Tellicherry	Rs. 150 to 200
Local ones	Rs. 40 to 60

Area under fodder crops

The most important reason for the deterioration in the quality of cattle is inadequate nutrition. The Royal Commission on Agriculture stated as early as 1928 that no substantial improvement in the way of breeding is possible until the cattle can be better fed. In 1958-59 the area shown under permanent pastures and other grazing lands came to 8,554 acres which is only about .52% of the total area of the District. Hence it is clear that there is very little grazing available. Indeed in many parts of the District the weeds growing on cultivated land, the grasses on field borders and along water channels, the cultivated plant which springs from seeds falling before harvest, and the stubble of crops furnish the main grazing available for cattle. Further there is abundance of grass only in certain brief periods of the year. But the growth of grasses is extremely rapid and they quickly become unpalatable to the cattle in the absence of ensilaging. The conversion of some of the best grazing lands for cultivation to meet the needs of the growing population has also contributed to a shortage of fodder supplies. Further the policy of the Forest Department on controlled grazing has in the words of S. Y. Krishnaswami resulted "in a prodigal utilisation of grazing grounds".*

Sheep breeding

A fairly good variety of goats is bred in most parts of the District, mainly by Muslims. But very little attention is paid to their proper breeding. Grass lands are dwindling with

**Rural Problems in Madras State*, S. Y. Krishnaswami, p. 193.

extension of the area under cereals with the result that there is scarcity of goat feeds. But at the same time the number of meat eaters is increasing with the worth of trading and industrial classes. Goat's milk is largely used for preparing tea and it is also given to children. It also does good to anaemic patients. However, the average consumption of milk in the District is very low.

Schemes for the development of cattle

The Animal Husbandry Department attends to the welfare of cattle in the District. During the First and the Second Five Year Plans the following development schemes were introduced by the Department in this District:—(1) One Key Village with 6 Sub-centres, (2) An Artificial Insemination Centre, (3) Eight Veterinary Dispensaries, (4) One Veterinary Hospital, (5) Distribution of 4 Government bulls under Livestock Distribution Scheme, and (6) 20 Bulls included under Premium and Grant-in-aid scheme. In addition, 6 N.E.S. Blocks have opend their Veterinary Dispensaries and carry on various Animal Husbandry activities, such as supply of Mineral Mixture at subsidised rates, poultry and eggs distribution, buck distribution, opening of First Aid Centres etc.

The Key Village Centre was started at Kozhikode on September 15, 1957. The area covered by the scheme is 64 sq. miles. In 1957-58 six sub-centres were opened to this Key Village Centre. The activities done at these centres include artificial insemination of cattle and buffaloes, castration of scrub bulls, identification and marking of animals by tattooing, milk recording, fodder cultivation, feeding of cattle with mineral supplement to overcome the deficiency in minerals, organisation of co-operative units for the sale of concentrated feed for cattle, disposal of milk and milk products, prevention and control of contagious diseases, treatment of sterility and minor ailments etc. The Artificial Insemination Centre was opened at Manjeri on December 8, 1957. The area covered by the scheme is 5 sq. miles. The particulars of the work turned out at these centres for the years 1957-58 and 1958-59 are given in Table XIII.

TABEL—XIII

Statement of particulars of the work of the Key Village and Artificial Insemination Centre

	Key Village		Artificial Insemination Centre	
	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. No. of cows fit for breeding purposes	4,655	4,655	1,570	928
2. No. of buffaloes fit for breeding purposes	514	514	Nil	324
3. No. of stud bulls maintained as donors				
(a) Sindhi Bulls	3	2	1	Nil
(b) Murrah Buffalo Bulls	2	2	2	1
4. No. of collections made	91	187	85	9
5. No. of Inseminations conducted;				
(a) Cows	502	1,994	481	75
(b) Buffaloes	174	313	140	40
6. No. of calves born;				
(a) Cows	Nil	37	94	Nil
(b) Buffaloes	Nil	5	22	Nil
7. No. of castrations made	Nil	164	Nil	82
8. Result of insemination percent of success	Nil	46	Nil	33
9. Outbreaks recorded	Nil	4	Nil	Nil
10. No. of animals vaccinated	Nil	4,430	Nil	Nil

There are 8 Veterinary Dispensaries and one Veterinary Hospital in the District. The total number of cases treated and operations and castrations performed in them during the period 1957-59 are given below.

	1957-58	1958-59
Total number of cases treated	276	288
Total number of castrations performed	1,739	3,512
Number of out-patients treated	9,854	21,454

The Livestock Bull Distribution Scheme and the Premium and Grant-in-aid Scheme are peculiar to the District. The object of the former is to distribute good Sindhi bulls and Murrah buffalo bulls having good pedigree among ryots for stud purposes free of cost. The bailee has to execute a bond agreeing to maintain the bull at his expense for breeding purposes for three years. The bull should perform 180 services in three years. At the end of the period if the bailee has satisfactorily fulfilled all the conditions, the bull will be declared to be the property of the custodian. There were 4 bulls and a buffalo bull under this scheme in 1957-58 and they performed 223 services while in 1958-59 there were three bulls

and a buffalo bull and they performed 156 services. Under the Premium and Grant-in-aid Scheme a grant at the rate of Rs. 200 for Sindhi bulls and Rs. 220 for Murrah bulls is given to private individuals under certain conditions. Under this scheme there were 11 Sindhi bulls and 3 buffalo bulls in 1957-58 and they performed 403 services while in 1958-59 there were 12 bulls and 4 buffalo bulls and they performed 799 services. There is also a Dry Cattle Farm at Chathamangalam where dry cattle are salvaged and looked after during the dry period till they calve.

Poultry

The District is rich in poultry. According to provisional figures of the nineth quinquennial Livestock Census, 1961, it stands second among the Districts of the State in regard to the number of poultry, the total number being 13,55,543. This shows that the people have begun to realise the value of poultry as an additional source of income. The District has a Poultry Farm and a Poultry Extension Centre located at Calicut where foreign breeds of fowls are reared and supplied to the local people.

Animal diseases

Cattle diseases are of various types in origin and behaviour. The chief animal diseases are Foot and Mouth, Black-quarter and Anthrax. These come under contagious diseases. Though not of common occurrence, they are brought to notice occasionally. In such cases, segregation of the sick and strict hygienic measures are adopted in addition to symptomatic treatment. Among non-contagious diseases Rabies is a serious menace in this area. As already stated there are eight Veterinary Dispensaries and one Veterinary Hospital in this District. Every year a large number of animals are treated in these institutions. It may however be noted that the figures given out from the various veterinary institutions of the District are not an index of the incidence of livestock diseases. It is only when the indigenous medicines fail that the diseased animal is taken to the dispensary. Further the visits of the itinerary veterinary doctor can only be few and far between. It may also be mentioned here that there is a Regional Clinical Laboratory at Calicut which is of substantial help in the diagnostic work of the various diseases.

Dairy farming and milk supply scheme

Co-operative Societies play an important role in the distribution of milk in the District. In 1959-60 there were 27 of them, having a share capital of Rs. 5,06,395. A Milk Scheme for Calicut City was drawn up by the State Government and included in the Third Five Year Plan. Its main object is to improve the quantity and quality of the milk supplied, and to utilise in full the milk available in the area around Calicut City, thereby providing a remunerative market for the rural producer and at the same time ensuring a safe and assured supply of milk at a reasonable price to the consumer. It is proposed to establish a Central Dairy equipped with the most modern plant and machinery for processing and distribution of milk in bulk and in bottles. The scheme involves a total estimated outlay of Rs. 13 lakhs. The Pasteurisation Plant alone will cost more than Rs. 4 lakhs which will be borne by the U.N.I.C.E.F. A plot of land measuring 6 acres near Beypore has already been acquired. The construction of the building is expected to commence immediately. The plant and equipment schedule is being drawn up and it is hoped that the Dairy Building would be completed, and the plant and machinery installed before April, 1962.

The Dairy will handle 10,000 litres of milk a day in the first phase. Its milk requirements will be drawn from the Milk Co-operatives now functioning in, and to be organised within a radius of 30 Kms. from the City. Cows' milk and buffaloes' milk will be made available separately to the consumers at reasonable rates. Provision has also been made for manufacturing milk products such as butter and ghee from surplus milk. It is also proposed to set up an organisation for development of milk production in the rural areas by organising rural milk co-operatives, issuing liberal loans to primary producers, and providing extension service to the milk producers in the scientific methods of milk production, cattle management etc. The scheme when fully implemented will provide subsidiary occupation to about 1,500 producers in the District and direct employment to about 150 people.

FISHERIES

The Kozhikode District offers enormous natural facilities for both marine and inland fisheries. The sea, rivers and backwaters teem with fishes innumerable. Kozhikode has a coast

line of about 72 miles. In almost all places in this District the sea is calm throughout the year except in June, July, and August. But it is not calm at Badagara, Kadalundi, Madathara, Madapalli, and Melady from February to August, and it is very difficult for fishing during this period. There is also difficulty for fishing in the coastal areas at Madakkara, Madapalli, Tikkoti, Elathur and Pudiappa due to the presence of rocks. There is a big rock known as *Velliankallu* opposite to Tikkoti at about 7 miles from the shore. However, there is not much influence of the ebb and flow of the tides on the fishery.

Fishing is the main occupation of a large number of people. The fisheries of the District provide livelihood for all the coastal folk as well as employment in all its stages from fishing to consumption. According to a Census taken by the Fisheries Department in 1958 the total number of fishermen's households in the District comes to 5,076. The main fishing castes are Mogaya, Tiyya, Mappila and Mukkuvan. They inhabit chiefly the shores of the backwaters and sea and pursue the traditional occupation of fishing and boat making. Fish is also an important item in the diet of about 96 per cent of the population. It has an industrial and economic value in so far as it helps in the manufacture of fish oil, guano, manures etc. A good income is earned by the railways also in the form of freight charges for transporting fish. Thus the fishing industry makes a sizable contribution to the wealth of the District.

There are 8 major fishing centres viz., Tanur, Parappanangadi, Kozhikode, Paravanna, Kottayi, Pudiappa, Quilandi, and Badagara. The average annual turn-over in each of these centres is given in Table XIV.

TABLE—XIV

Major fishing centres and their average annual turn-over

	Important centres		*Annual turn-over in Mds.*
1.	Tanur	..	3,48,677
2.	Parappanangadi	..	3,01,500
3.	Kozhikode	..	1,50,000
4.	Paravanna	..	1,18,294
5.	Kottayi	..	1,17,873
6.	Pudiappa	..	1,53,810
7.	Quilandi	..	3,01,763
8.	Badagara	..	2,60,000
	Total	..	17,51,917

Prevalent species of fish found in the District

About 13 major varieties of fish are obtained in the Kozhikode coast. The species of fish, their characteristics, value etc., are given in Table XV.

TABLE—XV

Species of fish found in the District

Name of fish (1)	Family (2)	Characteristics (3)	Value (4)
1. Scomber microlipedates (Mackerel)	Scombridae	Elongated body scales or no scales	One o the major commercial fishes Rs. 8 per maund
2. Cyblum guttattum (seer)	,,	Wide mouth teethed	Very good fish Rs 12 per maund
3. Clupea Longicepts (Oil Sardine)	Clupidae	Silvery white elongated body	Rs. 4 per maund
4. Clupea fimbriatus	,,	,,	..
5. Engraulis mystax	,,	Laterally compressed body	..
6. Lates calcarifer	Percedae	Wide mouthed large in size	..
7. Polynemus (Indian salmon)	Polynemadea	Interior mouth	..
8. Trichiurus savala (Ribbon fish,	Trichiuridae	Laterally compressed	..
9. Equuala splendens (Silver bellies)	,,	Round in shape	Rs. 6 per maund
10. Stromateus (Pomfret)	Stromatidea	,,	Rs. 10 ,,
11. Cynoglossus spp.	,,	..	Rs. 5 ,,
12. Peneous indicus (Prawns)	Crustacea	..	Rs. 13 ,,
13. Carcarius spp. (Sharks)	Selachedae	Placoid scales	Rs. 16 ,,

The majority of the marine fishes are shoaling fishes. The most important among them are the seer mackerel, pomfret etc. Sardines are abundant at times. They are extensively used as manure. Of fresh water fishes murrel and carps are the most important. The mahseer is commonly said to be plentiful in the head-waters of most of the large rivers. It does not however grow to such a size in these rivers as it does in the cubbain in Wynad, where it is said to grow over a hundred and fifty pounds in weight.

Fishing equipments

Table XVI gives the main types of boats used in the District, the timber used for their making, charge for repairs and their durability.

TABLE—XVI

Particulars of the boats used

Type of boat (1)	Timber used (2)	Approximate cost in Rupees (3)	Charge for repairs in Rupees (4)	Durability (5)
				Years
1. Big size	Ayini	1,700 to 2,000	100	60
	Punna	700 to 1,000	75	25
	Mangowood	600 to 750	30	10
	Cheeny	800 to 1,250	45	15
2. Small size	Ayini	500 to 600	50	60
	Punna	300 to 400	25	25
	Mangowood	100 to 200	15	10
	Cheeny	400 to 600	20	15

Several kinds of nets are used by the fisherfolk of the District. The details of the cost of these nets, their length, breadth, durability etc., are given in Table XVII.

TABLE—XVII

Particulars of the nets used

Kind of net	Length	Breadth	Actual cost	Durability
	Yards	Yards	Rs.	Years
Arakolli	23-25	10-15	550-750	3-4
Pakhuvala	9-10	10-13	400-500	,,
Vakkuvala	8-10	9-10	750-800	20-25
Ayilakolli	30-35	20-25	520-570	3-4
Thalayanvala	8-10	7-9	250-350	,,
Nethalvala	12-15	8-12	530-630	5-8
Mathikolli	25-30	15-20	650-750	3-4
Ozhukkuvala piece	10-12	3-4	12-20	4-6
Veechuvala (cast net)	5-7	8-10	75-100	2-3
Thirandyvala piece	10-12	3-4	15-20	4-6
Chalavala piece	10-12	5-6	25-30	2-3
Konchankolli	35-40	10-12	250-400	3

On a broad classification of the nets into shore seine, boat seine, and drifted net, it is seen that 248, 6,094, and 6,731 of them respectively were used in the District in 1957-58 and in 1958-59.

Mechanised fishing

As it is felt that the traditional boats used by fishermen cannot go beyond two leagues for fishing in the sea, an attempt has been recently made to exploit this area by mechanised fishing boats fitted with modern fishing implements like purseine and trawl-nets. The success of the scheme of mechanisation

of fishing will depend upon the ability of fishermen in handling motorised fishing boats, and in adopting modern methods of mechanised fishing. The local fishermen are trained in the Fishermen Training Centre at Beypore. This forms one of the 3 Centres working in the State for the purpose of giving training to actual fishermen in mechanised fishing. The details regarding the Centre can be had from Chapter XV.

Another scheme for mechanised fishing known as "Improvement of Indigenous Craft and Tackle" is located at Beypore in the Office of the Inspector of Fisheries, Special. The scheme began functioning at Beypore at the mouth of the Chaliyam river on October 15, 1955. Its proximity to Calicut where a large market for raw fish exists, its access to Feroke Railway Station by the Chaliyam river, and the harbour facilities for large size mechanised boats make the place an ideal one to conduct mechanised fishing operations. Further, it is a place where boat building can be undertaken on a large scale because of the availability of timber, skilled labour, electricity etc. The total catches here came to 511,623 lbs. and the sale proceeds to Rs. 6461 in 1957-58. The boats are operated off Beypore, Kadalundi, Parappanangadi and Calicut with Beypore as Headquarters. Fishing at outside stations is not usually conducted.

Fish curing yards

Fish is preserved by the conventional methods. Most of the catches are sold in fresh condition for edible purposes. Fish is preserved usually when the catches cannot be disposed of in fresh condition. The traditional methods of curing are (a) sun-drying without salt and (b) salt curing either by dry process or by wet process. The new methods are freezing, canning, semi-drying, icing and preservation in cold storage. Even as early as 1877 there were 37 fish curing yards on the coast of Malabar of the then Madras Presidency.[1] There are at present 17 fish curing yards in the District. They are located at Madakkara, Madapalli, Badagara, Meladi, Quilandi, Elathur, Pudiappa, Calicut, Naduvattam, Beypore (North), Beypore (South), Kadalundi, Parappanangadi, Tanur, Pudiakadappuram, Paravanna, and Kottayi. Salt at 50% of the cost price including transport charge is supplied to bona fide fishermen for fish curing under departmental supervision. A detailed statement of operations in the Fish Curing Yards of the District during the year 1958-59 is given in Table XVIII.

1. *Farmers of India*, Vol. II, p. 338.

TABLE—XVIII

Statement of operations in Fish Curing Yards 1958-59

Name of fish curing yards	*Fish let in*		*Fish let out*		*Salt issued*	
(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)	
	Mds.	*Sr.*	*Mds.*	*Sr.*	*Mds.*	*Sr.*
Madakkara	17,422	26	11,135	39	2,815	34
Madapalli	16,268	27	11,451	38	2,339	24
Badagara	34,637	06	23,181	27	5,017	36
Meladi ..	12,265	09	8,583	06	1,919	25
Quilandi ..	75,515	22	55,796	27	10,853	12
Elathur ..	11,521	28	8,359	24	1,804	10
Pudiappa ..	40,307	19	32,270	24	6,016	12
Calicut ..	45,548	06	35,976	05	6,557	22
Naduvattam .	11,715	18	7,405	02	1,661	38
Beypore (North) ..	7,517	12	5,104	24	1,168	20
Beypore (South)	27,273	15	19,303	00	4,316	00
Kadalundi ..	23,957	38	15,701	20	3,800	00
Parappanangadi	56,938	16	37,276	11	8,530	08
Tanur ..	74,169	36	15,442	10	11,373	38
Pudiakadappuram ..	16,565	08	11,016	18	2,405	14
Paravanna .	22,666	15	18,282	13	3,455	12
Kottayi .	27,250	28	20,429	08	4,099	00

There is an Ice-Making and Quick Freezing Plant with cold storage at West Hill which is the largest of the existing ice-making, freezing and storage plants in the State. Constructed at a cost of Rs. 7.50 lakhs, it was originally leased to Bombay Ammonia and Refrigeration Company, but was taken over by Government and run departmentally with effect from July 1, 1958 under the supervision of the Deputy Director of Fisheries, Kozhikode. Its activities comprise of manufacture of ice, freezing of prawns, lobster tails, froglegs, etc., temporary storage of fish and frozen articles, and their export to foreign countries, especially to the U.S.A. The capacity of the plant is given below:—

Ice-making	5 tons per day
Ice storage	15 tons
Fresh fish storage	30 tons
Frozen storage	40 tons
Freezing	15 tons per day of eight hours

Demonstration tanks

There are 9 demonstration tanks in the District. The chief object of the scheme is to popularise the value and technique of fish culture in inland waters by demonstration and propaganda and thereby promote food supply. Exotic varieties of fish and fingerlings of Catla, Labeo, Marigala and Cirrhina received from Samalkot in Andhra State and Tanjore in Madras State are stocked in these waters. Besides fingerlings of Tilapia and Etroplus collected from Ernakulam Section are sold out to the public.

Boat building yard at Beypore

It has been proposed to put up a boat building yard at Beypore for construction of mechanised fishing boats. An ideal site bordering Chaliyam river at Beypore has been selected. The proposed yard is the second of its kind in Kerala, the first one being at Vizhinjam in Trivandrum District.

Marketing of fish

An insulated van for fish transport is maintained at Calicut under the control of the Deputy Director of Fisheries, and it is hired for the transport of frozen iced fish from the Refrigeration Centres to embarkation points for export. But fresh fish is usually brought to the local markets by head-loads, cycles and lorries. A portion of the catches is marketed fresh locally and in nearby places. The other portion is cured and marketed in Madras, Tiruchirappalli and Madurai, besides being exported to Ceylon. Since ice is available fresh fish is also sent to outside stations. Prawns are also frozen in the ice plant at Kozhikode for being sent to the U.S.A. The figures for 1957-59 relating to the frozen goods exported by the Malabar Ice and Cold Storage Co., Kozhikode to U.S.A. are revealing.

Year	*Shrimps in lbs.*	*Lobster in lbs.*	*Froglegs in lbs.*
1957-58	83,520	3,480	7,160
1958-59	1,05,050	3,320	..

There are both wholesalers and retailers in the fish trade. The retailers are the local curers and the financing middlemen. The wholesalers do dry fish business on a very large scale. There are also several forwarding and commission agents who deal in dry fish export trade. The value of turnover of a wholesaler is estimated at Rs. 1,000 per month while that of a retailer at Rs. 300.

Marine products

The fins of the shark are cut, dressed, and then semidried. The dried fins are exported to Singapore and Malaya where they are used for making soups, glue, etc. .Another important marine product is the oil extracted from the liver and body of fish. The oil is extracted from the fatty livers of the sharks which belong to the group of cartilaginous fishes which include the skates, raks and dog-fishes. There are about 69 species of these fishes and 57 of them are represented in the waters surrounding this District. However only 20 species out of these are of commercial importance. Shark Liver oil contains about 10,000 to 15,000 and reaches a peak of 3,00,000 inter-national units of Vitamin A per gram. Perhaps this is the reason why Kozhikode has become the main centre of medicinal fish liver oil industry. The largest factory in the East for the production of shark liver oil is located at Calicut. The Factory's standardised products like the Sea Gold Shark Liver Oil and high potency vitamin oil Adamin are well known. 1,00,007 lbs. of shark liver oil was collected and sent to the Government Oil Factory in 1958-59 for extraction of oil from the yards of the Kozhikode Section of the Fisheries Department as against 76,087 lbs. during 1957-58. The other details of the shark liver oil industry are given in the Chapter on "Industries".

The extraction of body oil from sardine etc. is practised along the coast and the oil is used as a preservative for boats. It can also be used for manufacturing paints, varnishes, soaps, etc. The preparation of fish oil, fish meal, etc is not done at present on a systematic basis. Fish meal contains a high percentage of proteins and minerals and it is very good food for cattle, poultry, etc.

Another by-product from the sea is limeshells, and good limeshell beds are found in the coastal areas of the District. They are the outer coverings of a class of animals called the shell fish. The important areas of the shell deposits are Elathur and Kadalundi. Licenses for collection and disposal of lime shells under the provisions of the Kerala Lime Shell Control Act (XVIII of 1958) are issued by the District Board and the Municipalities.

There are two Fisheries Demonstration Factories at Tanur and Kozhikode working under the Fisheries Technological Station, Kozhikode. The Fish Meal Plant at West Hill started

in 1955 is also attached to the Kozhikode Centre. These factories in addition to commercial processing of fishery by-products serve as extension units by demonstrating to the fishermen the findings of the research laboratories. The guts and gills which are thrown away by the fishermen are successfully processed into best quality manure in the Station. 19,084 lbs. of fish manure were produced in 1958-59 as against 73,122 lbs. during 1957-58. The downward trend is mainly due to the increased production made by the fishermen themselves as a result of which less waste material was available for the Department for processing. 30,416½ lbs. of fish meal were produced in 1958-59 as against 34,787 lbs. in 1957-58. The slight decrease is mainly due to the voluntary reduction in processing due the accumulation of stock. 6,450 lbs. of fish oil were produced in 1958-59 as against 7,467 lbs. of 1957-58. A total quantity of 25,782 lbs. fish meal, 31,728 lbs. of fish manure, 383 lbs. of fish oil and 4,961 lbs. of brine salt and sediments manure were marketed in 1958-59 alone.

The manufacture of semi-dried prawns is carried on at Kozhikode and Tanur. In addition large quantities of prawns are being frozen at the West Hill Cold Storages and exported to America. Consequently there is now a fall in production of semi-dried prawns in the Kozhikode Centre, as may be seen from the production of 2,024½ lbs. in 1958-59 as against 2,837½ lbs. produced during 1957-58. In the Tanur Centre 674 lbs. were manufactured in 1958-59 as against 376 lbs. produced in 1957-58. In addition semi-dried prawns are produced at Pattuvam and Quilandi. The quantity produced at these two centres came to 1,767 lbs. in 1958-59. The major portion of this is marketed through wholesale merchants at Madras, Tiruchi, Bangalore, and Hyderabad.

Organisation of the fishing industry

The fishing industry except for the Fishermen's Co-operatives is not run on an institutional basis in this District. The fishermen operate in teams according to the implements used. The following are the categories and the number of persons engaged in each group.

1. *Odam vala*. 16 persons (2 boats).
2. *Veechu vala*. 3 to 4 persons.
3. *Beppu thoni*. 3 to 4 persons.

The catches are divided among the members of the team varying with the implements used and the types of fishes caught. There is no rigid employer-employee relationship anywhere in the fishing industry. The capital for the implements is found by the master fishermen or the team captain by loans from the middlemen. Most of the implements are also supplied by middlemen who have to be paid a share of the catches. In certain cases the catches have to be sold even through the middlemen to whom the fishermen are bound by certain registered documents.

Fishermens' Co-operative Societies

There are 23 Fishermen Co-operative Societies in this District. One of the notable of such societies is the Pudiappa Fishermen Co-operative Society Ltd., No. 6014, Pudiappa, which was granted a long term loan of Rs. 10,000 by the Government in 1958-59. The Malabar District Co-operative Central Bank, Kozhikode, finances these Societies by way of short term loans. Mention may also be made in this connection of the Malabar District Fishermen Co-operative Federation functioning with its headquarters in Calicut. It co-ordinates the activities of about 90 Fishermen Co-operative Societies functioning in the Malabar area. The management of the Society is in the hands of a Board of Directors consisting of 5 elected representatives of the Societies and four nominated members. The services of a senior Co-operative Inspector were made available to the Federation by the Government of Madras for the day to day management of its affairs. This post has been continued by the Government of Kerala in subsequent years.

Statistics of fishermen

Table XIX based on the Census taken by the Department of Fisheries, in 1958 shows the present position of the number of households of fishermen in the District, the number of crafts and gears used by them, their indebtedness etc.

TABLE XIX

Figures of the Fishermen's Census of 1958

1.	No. of households	5,076
2.	Total number of members in the household	45,722
3.	Average household size	9.0

4.	Big Boats	
	(a) Plank	374
	(b) Dug outs	987
	(c) Average per household	0.27
5.	Small Boats	
	(a) Plank	202
	(b) Dug outs	1,186
	(c) Average per household	0.27
6.	Catamaran	15
7.	Nets	
	(a) Shore seine	248
	(b) Boat seine	6,094
	(c) Drift net	6,731
	(d) Average per household	2.58
8.	Line and Hooks	
	(a) Sets	305
	(b) Nos.	86,225
9.	Income	Rs. 37,77,841
10.	Average income per household	744
11.	Debt	Rs. 21,31,766
12.	Asset	Rs. 3,01,582
13.	Average debt per household	
	(a) For debtors only	473
	(b) For all	420

Fisheries Research

Kozhikode can take legitimate pride in being the pioneer District in India in the field of fisheries research. One of the notable institutions in the field is the Fisheries Technological Station, Kozhikode, started as early as 1945. It conducts research on the methods of preserving fish and converting it into oil and manures and other by-products. One of the first investigations undertaken was the study of the nutritive value of the different food fishes of this coast. Later on a Bacteriology wing was added to this institution in 1950 and fundamental research into the methods of preserving fish based on a systematic study of the original bacterial flora present in the natural habitats of various fishes, and on the surface of both marine and fresh water fishes was taken up. The problems of salting and smoking in fishing industry in

relation to quality of salt, proportion of salting, pickling time, drying time and storage conditions were given top priority. Major fishes of this State are salted under commercial conditions in the laboratory and by chemical analysis and bacteriological tests the optimum proportion of salt is fixed for each species. Similarly standard methods for the preparation of good quality smoked fish from mackerels and pomfrets are evolved and systematic experiments conducted on keeping quality. Experiments for finding out suitable methods for drying fish (artificial drying), for salt pickling, for home canning of different food fishes and prawns, for icing and refrigeration, and for packing fishery products form some of the activities at this Station. Also special studies on the biochemical aspects of mackerels, sardines, oysters, clams etc. are conducted. Another important study is directed to find out effective measures to control the gross faecal contamination of green mussel by shore pollution, direct defaecation, and sewage and river systems. One of the outstanding achievements of this Station is a new method of semi-drying by which prawns could be preserved for two to three months without loss of flavour or texture. Experiments on the manufacture of fish meal both manually and by machine were conducted and efforts made to popularise the product within the country, especially for poultry feeding. The fish meal (and oil obtained as by-product) is manufactured in the Fishery Demonstration Factories attached to this Station and in 1955 a pilot fish meal plant capable of handling 1|2 ton raw material was also attached to it. High grade oil processed by the Station has earned the appreciation of a number of tanners including the Central Leather Research Institute, Madras, who purchase regular consignments of oil from here. Of late successful attempts were made for preparing fish and prawn flour suitable for human consumption. Demonstrations were held on the preparation of high quality manure out of the processing waste in fish curing industry. The simple process evolved consists of mixing the offal with saw dust and drying on bamboo mats. The process has been adopted well by the fishermen and the function of the Station is at present mainly that of quality control. By the experiments conducted at this station Alamask C.P.M. X, an aromatic compound manufactured by Messrs. May and Baker, has been found to be useful for controlling the unpleasant odour associated with the fish processing industry. In order to bring home to the public

the nutritional aspects and educate them in the proper processing and cooking of fish, a Home Economics wing was established at this station in 1953 and a qualified food technologist appointed as Home Economist. A number of recipes, adaptable for low income families were worked out, and made known through free pamphlets, exhibitions and conferences.

The activity of this station is gradually moving from mere laboratory research to actual performance, demonstration, and consultation service to the industry. Many firms, both inside and outside the State, take the advice of this station on such varied subjects as fish meal, fish oil, fish canning, icing, and refrigeration. In addition, an analytical wing under a qualified and experienced Laboratory Assistant is also attached to this station and facilities are available for the critical analysis by advanced techniques of all the fishery products. Besides the samples of departmental products, the samples from private parties are also accepted for analysis at a nominal rate. A number of individuals and firms including a few leading foreign firms at Calicut are taking advantage of this facility. Yearly about 100 samples are handled. Bacteriological tests like total count and salmonella tests are also conducted. The present technical staff consists of one Superintendent, four Research Assistants, one Laboratory Assistant, one Home Economist, and one Manure Assistant. Moreover, there are two Mechanics and a qualified Boiler Foreman attached to the factories.

Marine Biological Station, West Hill

With a view to tackling the problems connected with the biology, fecundity, age, and shoaling of the pelagic fishes of the West Coast, particularly the oil sardine and the mackerel, and carrying out investigations, there is a Biological Station functioning at West Hill in Kozhikode. The major items of work being attended to here are (1) meteorological and hydrographical studies, (2) plankton studies, (3) investigation of oil sardines, (4) mackerel investigations, (5) the trend of general fisheries and (6) the supply of Zoological specimens. The meteorological data are recorded on all the working days during the month. Studies on hydrographical conditions of the inshore region of West Hill are done by taking samples of sea water and analysing them to know chlorinity, salinity, alkalinity, phosphates, silicates and dissolved oxygen. In order to study the hydrographical conditions of

the offshore region and to correlate the chemical factors with plankton and fisheries, surface and bottom samples of sea water are collected at 5, 10 and 15 fathoms lines off Beypore and analysed. Twice a week samples of plankton are collected from 3 fathoms region from the sea opposite to the West Hill Station. Offshore plankton samples are collected at 5, 10 and 15 fathoms lines off Beypore. The plankton hauls are studied in detail and general features recorded. Samples of oil sardines are collected regularly from three landing centres, Kadappuram, Vellayil and Pudiyangadi and size recorded daily. Samples of mackerels are also taken regularly from these centres, and their size frequently recorded Random samples of specimens are examined in the laboratory to study the problems connected with the size, range, age, determination, and biology of this important fish. The study of the trend of general fisheries includes the peak seasons of fishery, the total landings of fish etc. The zoological specimens supplied include those of shark pomfrets etc.

FORESTS

The forests of the Kozhikode District are under the administrative control of the Kozhikode and Nilambur Divisional Forest Officers. The forests of the Kozhikode Forest Division lie spread over the north-eastern portion of the District while the entire forests of the Nilambur Forest Division lie in Ernad Taluk. The Kozhikode Division is comprised of five forest ranges, as shown below.

	Range.	*Headquarters.*
1.	Chedleth	Kuppadi
2.	Sultan's Battery	Kuppadi
3.	Kuttiyadi	Kuttiyadi
4.	Tamarasseri	Tamarasseri
5.	Chaliyam	Chaliyam

The Nilambur Division consists of three ranges. The names of these ranges and their headquarters are given below.

Range.	*Headquarters.*
Nilambur South	Nilambur
Nilambur North	do.
Karulai	Nedungayam

It may be noted that each range is under the charge of the Range Officer and each such range is the administrative unit of the Department at the taluk level.

The total area of the forests in the District in respect of the two Forest Division is given in Table XX.

TABLE—XX

Area under the Kozhikode and Nilambur Forest Divisions

Category (1)	*Kozhikode* (2)	*Nilambur* (3)	*Total* (4)
	Sq. K.ms.	Sq. K.ms.	Sq. K.ms.
Area under reserve forests	334.890	324.796	659.686
Area under protected forests	80.808	Nil	80.808
Area under private forests	818.440	Nil	818.440
Total forest area	1,234.138	324.796	155[illegible].934

No forest area is set apart as fuel and fodder reserves. The taluk-wise distribution of the forests is given in Table XXI.

TABLE—XXI

Taluk-wise distribution of forests

Range (1)	*Taluk* (2)	*Area* (3)
		In Sq. K.ms.
Chedleth	Portions of South Wynad	416.860
Sultan's Battery	do.	270.808
Kuttiyadi	Badagara and Quilandi	222.453
Tamarasseri	Kozhikode	323.859
Chaliyam	Tirur	.227
Nilambur South	Ernad	N. A.
Nilambur North	"	..
Karulai	"	..

Most of the forest lands are the property of private owners. The Table at Appendix I supplied by the revenue authorities shows the comparative extent of Government and private forests in the District classified into surveyed and unsurveyed.

Past system of forest management

At first no distinction was made between Private and Government forests, and the first essay at conservancy was the introduction in 1807 of a state royalty on teak and other valuable trees. This measure, which soon assumed the form

of a Government monopoly, led to such discontent among the landholders and inhabitants that Sir Thomas Munro decreed its abolition in 1822. The public forests continued to be worked by the Collector on the stump fee system[1] till 1847 when the Executive Engineer brought to the notice of Government that trees of value were rapidly disappearing. A Special Officer was appointed to explore, work and conserve the forests, but work was limited to the extraction of timber required by the Engineering Department and the Bombay Marine. The importance of protection and reproduction of forest growth was gradually recognised, and by 1860 both the Forest and Jungle Conservancy Departments had been organised, the former independent of the revenue authorities, and the latter designed for the protection of village forests under their supervision. The two Departments were merged in one as a branch of the Revenue Department in 1882.

The influence of forestry on the economy of the District is considerable since the forests give employment opportunities to the common people to a reasonable extent. A considerable number of *mazdoors* engaged by the Department as well as by contractors for the various operations earn their livelihood by working in forests. The aborigines of the Wynad tract also find in the forests their chief source of income. The forests of both the Divisions in this District have certain unique features, and it would be appropriate to deal with them separately.

KOZHIKODE FOREST DIVISION

Character of forests

The tract in the Kozhikode Forest Division lies between latitudes 11° 10′ and 11° 50′ and longitudes 75° 50′ and 76° 30′. The major ranges viz., Chedleth and Sultan's Battery are in the Wynad Plateau. The Division is comprised of two readily distinguished types of terrain viz. the foot-hills and the Wynad Plateau dotted with peaks. The foot-hills at elevation below a 1,000 feet are often capped without crops of hard laterite. On the Plateau, the soil is a rich clayey loam generally two to four feet deep with sub soil either a red gravel or a yellowish clay of considerable depth. The recorded annual rainfall over

1 The practice then in vogue was that the purchasers would have to remit a certain amount according to the species required by them.

the tract varies normally between 60" and 175". The forests of Wynad Plateau fall under 3 main types viz. (1) Plateau deciduous, (2) Tropical evergreen, and (3) Semi evergreen. Plateau deciduous type is found in the Wynad Plateau at elevations between 2,300 and 3,500 feet. It is characterised by the presence of an appreciable proportion of teak and *terminalia tomentosa*. Other common trees species are *Lagerstroemia lanceolata, Grewia tileaefolia Pterocarpus marsupium, Dalbergia latifolia*, etc. *Bambusa arundinaceae* is the predominant bamboo. but *Dendro calamus strictus* is found in drier localities. With the bamboo is associated a sprinkling of timber trees of stunted growth such as jack, aini and blackwood and there is a considerable quantity of small scrubby evergreen growth. Noticeable features of the uncultivated swampy lands are screwpine (*pandarus odoratissimus*), *Melastoma malabaricum*, and *Ligodium*. Tropical evergreen forests are found at elevations above 1,000 feet. The distribution of species is mainly governed by altitude. Main species occurring are *mesua ferrea, Palquium ellipticum, Cullania excelsa*, etc. *Vateria indica, hopea parviflora*, etc. seldom occur. The only forest under this type in this division is Ladysmith R. F. in Chedleth Range. The semi-evergreen forests indicate intermediate types between the 'Shola' and 'deciduous'. A major portion of forests in Kuttiyadi Range falls under this type.

Forest plantations

The forest areas suitable for raising plantations are being classified and planted up with teak, soft wood, *Rauwulfia serpentina*, sandalwood, etc. The total area of the plantations of Kozhikode Forest Division (species-war) as on March 31, 1960 and the ranges in which they are situated are given below:

	Acres.	*Cents.*
Teak.		
Chedleth Range	3,754	03
Sultan's Battery Range	1,452	00
Kuttiyadi Range	271	00
Tamarasseri	26	00
Total	5,503	03

Softwood.		
Chedleth Range	409	75
Sultan's Battery Range	394	00
Kuttiyadi Range	393	40
Tamarasseri	Nil	
Total	1,197	15
Rawulfia serpentina plantations.		
Chedleth Range	0	50
Sultan's Battery Range	Nil	
Kuttiyadi Range	0	50
Total	1	00
Sandalwood plantations.		
Sultan's Battery	2	00
Mixed plantations.		
Chedleth Range	27	00
Sultan's Battery Range	91	00
Total	118	00
Coconut tope.		
Chaliyam Depot Range	55	01

The system followed in this Division in regard to the exploitation of timber is clear felling whereby the saleable trees are marked for extraction and cut and sold in round logs. The top ends resulting from the extraction and the residual tree growth are sold to contractors in auction. The system of selection felling has been discontinued for the present. The Forest Working in this Division is based on B. A. Kariappa's working plan. Timber is extracted from selected coupes, and after having cut and removed all the tree growth in the areas, they are regenerated with hardwood or softwood, as the case may be. In matters of regeneration silvicultural principles are strictly followed.

Forest produce

1. *Timber.*

The chief forest produce is timber. It is worked down from the forests to the sale depots as round logs and sold in monthly auctions. The total out-turn of timber for the period 1958-60 in this Division is given below.

Year.	*Out-turn of timber.*	*Value realised.*
	cft.	*Rs.*
1958-59	5,19,577	1,73,506.00
1959-60	4,07,488	5,37,918.00

The requirements in respect of timber for local consumption and for use abroad are met from the timber worked down from the Government owned and private forests. The local markets for timber are the sea ports of Baliapatam, Tellicherry, and Calicut. It has been estimated that 60% of the timber marketed on the west coast goes by sea to Arabia, Karachi, Kathiawar, Cutch, Veravel, Ratnagiri and Bombay and some 30% is railed over land to the Districts east of the Western Ghats, the balance being consumed locally. Teak, *Dalbergia latifolia*, *Pterocarpus marsupium*, *Hopea parviflora*, *Lagerstromia lanceolata*, *Terminalia tomentosa*, *Artocarpus hirsuta*, etc. are the chief species of timber marketed and they are sold in round logs. Teak poles are excellent for transmission of electric lines and hence a good market has arisen for them. The wood of *mesua ferrea*, *Xyliayle carpa*, *Hopea parvifolia* and teak are now used for railway sleepers. The top ends of teak and rosewood are converted into spokes and felloes or scantlings for sale. Fuel and charcoal are the next important forest produces. The demand for fuel is comparatively less and consumption is confined to local needs. Charcoal has a limited demand, the supply coming mainly from private '*punam*' areas.

There are no forest industries in this District. But arrangements are being made to open a Rayon Pulp Factory at Mavur. The industry is proposed to be fed by the bamboos of the forests.

2. *Firewood.*

Factories in the District depend mainly on the supply of fire wood from the forests. The fire wood is sold out in

auction after extraction of timber fit for depot supplies. The total out-turn of fire wood and charcoal in the division during 1959-60 was 5,144.79 cubic meters, and the revenue fetched was Rs. 46,902.83.

Minor forest produce

The chief minor forest products available in the forests of this division are honey, wax, shekoy, cardamom, canes, pepper, gallnuts etc. These products are readily sold. Skins, horns, ivory, oranges, wild turmeric, dammer and arecanuts are the less important minor forest products. Honey, cardamom, pepper, gallnuts etc., are of high medicinal value and the others are of high commercial value. Canes can be used for baskct making and other cottage industries.

Chief trees

The list of chief trees found in the Division is given below.

	Local name
Tectona grandis (Teak)	Thekku
Terminalia tomentosa	Karimarudu
Dalbergia latifolia (Rosewood)	Veetti (Itti)
Pterocarpus marsupium	Venga
Lagerstroemia lanceolata	Venteak
Anogeissus latifolia	Vellanava
Kydia calycina	Venda (Velukku
Grewia tilaefolia	Chadachi
Artocarpus hirsuta	Aini pilavu (Anjili)
Stephegyne parviflora	Kadamba
Shorea talura	Kangiliam (Jalari)
Bambussa arundinacea	Mula

Most of the trees mentioned above fall under the category of hardwood. They are mainly used for purposes of construction of houses, furniture, bodies of ships and boats, sleepers for railways, etc. As the hardwood timber can be put to a variety of uses, it is quite easy to find suitable markets for them at the maximum price.

Forests and Agriculture

The cultivable lands in the forest area are leased out to the public for cultivation. Paddy, ragi, chama, tapioca plantains, pepper, coffee, jacktrees, mango, etc., are generally grown in these areas. During 1959-60, 984.29 acres of wet

land and 193.74 acres of dry land were leased out for cultivation. 6,70,625K.gms. of paddy is estimated to have been raised during 1959-60 in the areas thus leased out. Besides, the regeneration areas are leased out to the public, particularly to the Hill Tribes. The raising of crops in the regeneration areas is termed *punam* cultivation. In the case of Hill Tribes the areas are distributed free of rent. This system of leasing out the regeneration areas for cultivation is advantageous to both the general public and the Department. The Department saves a considerable amount by getting the work of weeding etc., in the plantations done by the lessees. As for the general public, they get land at low rent, or even without rent, as is the case with the Hill Tribes. The net result of this system is the increased production of agricultural products and this helps to some extent in solving the problem of food scarcity in the District and the State as a whole. The total out-turn during 1960-61 from *punam* areas alone is estimated as follows:

Crop.	*Out-turn*
Paddy	7,15,990 kgms.
Ragi	16,713.1 kgms.
Tapioca	45,400 kgms.

Elephant capturing operations

Elephants have been captured in pit falls from time immemorial but it was not till 1896 that their capture was systematically taken up in the Government forests in the Wynad area. In that year 17 elephants were captured. Since then operations have been carried on every year with the most satisfactory results. The elephant capturing operations in this Division are seasonal. Pits of the capacity just above the size of an elephant of normal size would be dug at places where elephants are found in plenty and the mouth of the pits would be covered with twigs and wild grass covered over by a coating of earth in order to make it impossible of detection by the wild elephants. The wandering wild elephants that happen to walk over them would fall into the pits and the departmental Officers on receipt of information to that effect would rush to the place. The pits would gradually be filled in with earth and branches of trees etc., so as to bring the wild one in the pit to the surface. After that, trained elephants at the disposal of the Department would be employed for capturing the one in the pit and it would be led to the Government Camp sheds with the help of the trained ones. The captured elephants

would be trained by the elephant men (mahouts) and the departmental elephants. After being trained, they would be used either for departmental purposes or sold in auction, as the case may be. There were altogether 34 elephants both male and female including calves in the possession of the Forest Department in this Division in the beginning of the year 1958-59.

Chief means of communication and transport in the forests

The chief means of communication in the forest areas of the Kozhikode Division are roads that run through the interior forests connecting the main roads. The names of the important forest roads and the number of forest Rest Houses are given below:

Roads

1. Chedleth—Carticulam part.
2. Inspection path in Ladysmith R. F.
3. Chedleth—Sultan's Battery road.
4. Chedleth—Odapallam road.
5. Kolavala road.
6. Chedleth—Chickenji path.
7. Approach road to Chedleth Rest House.
8. Odapallam—Chedleth Cart track.
9. Kurichiat—Yermavu road.
10. Kuppadi road (junction road making Chedleth and Sultan's Battery with Odapallam Battery road).
11. Golur road.
12. Approach road to Golur.
13. Pavagaddai road.
14. Chedleth—Feeder road.
15. Branch road from Chedleth Chickenji road.
16. Odapallam road.
17. Muthanga road.
18. Rampur road.
19. Muthanga—Murugady path.
20. Muthanga—Mudumalai path.
21. Naikatty—Mudumalai road.
22. Approach road to Muthanga Serambi.
23. Iron Bridge—Marupady road.
24. Alathur—Rampur foot path.

Rest house

1. Muthanga Serambi.
2. Chedleth Rest House.
3. Wooden Rest House at Padiri.
4. Chaliyam Rest House.

Forest Revenue

The total revenue and expenditure of this Division for 1958-59 were Rs. 29,64,746 and Rs. 7,25,327 respectively.

NILAMBUR FOREST DIVISION

Character of forests

The forests of the Nilambur Division are classified into 2 categories based on the elevation of the country. They are (1) Evergreen forests of the Ghats, (2) Semi deciduous forests of the foot hills and (3) Semi deciduous forests of the plains. The soil in this division is generally good, being alluvial and sandy. Rainfall is about 160″ per year. It may be seen from the above that the Nilambur forests are divisible into two major types, deciduous and evergreen.

The moist evergreen forests of the Ghat slopes climb from their foot to an elevation of 4,000 feet above sea level, and are found both on their western and eastern faces. The rainfall is very heavy, exceeding 300 inches in certain places, and the forest growth is magnificent. The trees grow to an immense size, and scmetimes attain a diameter of ten feet at the base and a height of more than 200 feet. "They are all evergreen, and with their variety of foliage and colour, especially when the leaves are flushing—some pure white, some crimson, others all possible tints of brown, yellow, red and green—are beautiful in the extreme. Their trunks are often covered with epiphytic orchids, ferns and messes, which add to beauty, but detract from the commercial value of the tree; and there is a glorious profusion of rattans, tree ferns, climbing ferns and creepers[1]". The trees which yield the most valuable timber are irumbogam or urupu (*hopea parviflora*) : white cedar (*dysoxylom malabaricum*) ; red cedar (*acrocarpus frazinifolia*) ; poonspar (*calophyllum elatum*) ;ebony (*diospyros ebenum*) ; aini (*artocarpus hirsuta*) ; jack (*artocarpus integrifolia*) ; iron wood (*mesua ferrea*) ; Pali (*dichopsis elliptica*) ; and white dammer (*vateria indica*). The plam *caryota urens* and the wild areca tree are conspicuous, as also are several species of rattan, and two fine reed bamboos ,*oxytenantherc thwaitesii* and *teinostachyum weightii*.

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1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 238.

The deciduous forests of the plains and the lower Ghat slopes stretch in a continuous belt along the foot of the Ghats from the northern extremity of the District to the Palghat Gap, and in places extend up the hill sides for some 1,500 feet. Formerly they must have been very valuable; but, being easy of access, they have long been worked out by their native owners, and now are almost destitute of good timber. Most of the trees are deciduous, but evergreen trees are found along the river banks. Commercially the most valuable trees in this zone are teak (*tectona grandis*); Bombay blackwood or East India rosewood (*dalbergia latifolia*); venteak (*lagerstroemia microcarpa*); irul (*xylia dolabriformis*); karumarudu or matti (*terminalia tomentosa*); and pumarudu (*terminalia paniculata*).

Plantations

Regarding the Nilambur teak plantation, *The Malabar District Gazetteer* gives the following historical account.[1]

"The forests of South Malabar however owe their commercial importance and their financial success almost entirely to the famous Nilambur teak plantations, which were started in 1840 by Mr. Conolly, Collector of Malabar, with the object of replacing those forests which have vanished from private carelessness and rapacity—a work too new, too extensive and too barren of early return to be ever taken up by the native proprietor. By a fortunate coincidence, the Trikkalayur Devaswom, which owns in the Nilambur valley many of the best sites for planting, happened to be in want of funds; and, in return for a royalty upon fellings and an advance of Rs. 8,000 without interest, the temple authorities consented to lease their lands for as many years as Government wished to retain possession. Somewhat similar leases were arranged with the Zamorin for the Nellikkut block in 1841, with the Wandur Nambudiripad for the Chattamborayi block in 1871, and with the Amarambalam Tirumulpad for the Amarambalam and Karimpuzha blocks in 1878. The *jenmom* right of the last two blocks was purchased by Government at a court sale in 1892".

"No better site for planting could have been chosen. The Nilambur valley is of the shape of a horse shoe and lies some 400 feet above sea level beneath the shadow of an amphitheatre of hills. The Wynaad plateau on the north and north-east does

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, pp. 244-45.

not attain an elevation of more than 3,000 feet, but the Camel's Hump range on the north-west and the towering Kundahs on the east and south-east rise into peaks upwards of 8,000 feet high. The soil of the valley, especially on the banks of its many streams, is an alluvial deposit of immense depth and wonderful fertility. The rainfall is about 130 inches; the temperature ranges from 80° to 90° Fahr. throughout the year. Gales are experienced in April to July and in October, often accompanied by whirlwinds originating in the river beds. Their course is easily marked by the destruction which follows in their wake and is confined to the banks of the river. The Chaliyar, Ponpuzha, and Karimpuzha, fed by innumerable smaller streams, unite in the heart of the plantations, and thence, as the Beypore river, flow into the sea only six miles south of Calicut. Four miles from its mouth a canal leads to the great timber mart at Kallayi, and thousands of logs are placed annually on the market at a minimum cost. The river is navigable for rafts from June to January and below Mambad navigation is so easy that the largest raft can be managed by a single man".

"An initial difficulty was experienced in getting the seed to germinate, and it was not till 1843 that Dr. Roxburgh suggested the true method, which subsequent experience has only slightly modified, of sowing the seed at the beginning of the rains in shaded beds lightly covered with earth and straw. Planting commenced in 1842, and, with the exception of 1843, 1877-1885, 1895 and 1896, has been continued every year up to the present time. For the first ten years operations were restricted to the good alluvial soil on the river bank west of Nilambur; but, when this was exhausted, a move was made up the river, and, with a view no doubt to concentration, from 1854 onwards the planting of each year was confined to one large block.. .. The fully stocked teak plantations in the Nilambur valley now covers only an area of 4,764.8 acres ...... Thinning was commenced in 1852".

The success of the initial attempts at planting teak was due to the excellent and meritorious work of Chathu Menon who was in charge of the plantation till 1862. Acquisition of further areas went on and planting of teak was carried on steadily but the extension of plantation was not continuous. By 1876, more than 3,700 acres were planted with teak. The first Working Plan was written by Lushinton for a period of 10 years

(1896-1905). By the end of 1904 about 5,000 acres had been planted up altogether. Planting of teak progressed steadily without much change in the techniques followed. Planting was done with nursery raised seedlings. Espacement of planting was changed frequently. Stump planting of teak as a universal practice came into being by 1931 and the espacement was fixed as 6′ x 6′. Practice of *punam* cultivation in regeneration areas was introduced during the early thirties. Technique of raising teak has undergone various changes and various improvements were effected by silvicultural research experiments on teak from time to time. The teak plantations in the Division in 1958-59 covered an area of 9,519 acres. It is estimated that about 21,000 acres of natural forests are still available for conversion into teak plantations in the Nilambur Division.

Besides teak plantations, an area of 1,992 acres in this Division was under soft wood plantations in 1958-59 and 13 acres under bamboo plantations.

As in other Forest Ranges of the State, the management and working of the Nilambur forests are also regulated by the prescriptions of the Working Plan based on the silvicultural principles of the forests.

Forest produce

The important products collected from the forests of the Nilambur Division are timber, firewood, bamboo, and minor forest products such as ginger, dammer, cardamom, honey, arrow root, shekoy, bees ware, neeratty seed, cashew and pepper. Of these timber is the chief forest produce. The superior quality teak logs are transported to Chaliyam Depot where they are sold in public auction after those which are suitable for supply to the Railways are sorted out. The miscellaneous timber logs and teak poles obtained from fellings and thinnings are transported to the central depots from where they are sold in auction. In addition, standing trees of the clear felling coupes are sold on lease to purchasers according to the prescriptions of the Working Plan. Firewood is not generally collected and disposed of by the Department on a large scale. The main source of firewood is from clearfelling coupes sold to contractors. Bamboos are not usually sold in this Division departmentally, except those leased out for extraction and removal by contractors from teak plantations where the growth of teak is retarded by bamboo growth.

An average quantity of 1,60,000 cft. of timber and 1,15,000 poles are extracted annually from this Division departmentally. At the same time about 2,00,000 cft. of timber and 1,20,000 cft. of firewood are extracted and removed from the clearfelling coupes by contractors every year. An average revenue of Rs. 14,00,000 is realised yearly on this account. Further an average quantity of 60,000 lbs. of other minor forest products is annually removed by purchasers. An average revenue of Rs. 5,000 is realised every year on this account.

Forests and agriculture

There are two kinds of cultivation permitted in the forests of this Division. They are (a) shifting *punam* cultivation in regeneration areas and (b) wet land cultivation in Karulai Range only. The right of cultivation is sold and the plots are leased out to the successful bidders annually after executing proper agreements. The details of areas cultivated and revenue realised during 1958 to 1960 are given below.

Year.	*Area cultivated.*	*Revenue realised*
	Acres.	Rs.
Punam cultivation		
1958-59	255.78	20,501
1959-60	266.05	32,666
Wet land cultivation		
1958-59	91.50	4,490
1959-60	91.50	4,021

It however remains to be said that the local agriculturists are not coming forward for utilising these facilities as their demands are adequately met from the private forests.

Elephant capturing

There were altogether 18 elephants in the possesion of the Forest Department in this Division in the beginning of 1958-59. The methods employed in capturing elephants have already been described earlier.

Means of communication and transport

Almost all the interior localities of the Nilambur forests are connected with forest roads. There are twenty roads in this Division. They are all fair weather roads and are maintained annually. The total length of these roads comes to 40 miles and 4 furlongs. There are also 2 bridges in the Division. The total cost of maintaining the roads and bridges during 1959-60 was Rs. 14,221.61.

The total number of Rest Houses in the Division is 9 including the Circuit house at Nilambur and the Inspection shed at Edakkod. The Rest Houses are situated at Nedungayam, Kariem, Arson Hill, Old Amarambalam, Nellicutha, Meenmutty and Pulimunda. Out of this only three Rest Houses i.e. Circuit house and Rest Houses at Nedungayam and Nellicutha are generally occupied by visitors. The rest are suituated in the interior forests and hence seldom occupied except by the Officers of the Department who camp there at times.

Game laws and their administration in the forest Divisions of the District

Gaming and fishing in forests are regulated by special game laws and shooting and fishing rules. Shooting of birds and animals such as geese, duck, wood cock, imperial pigeons, sambur, bison, deer, buffalo, antelope, Malabar squirrels, black monkeys etc., is prohibited during certain prescribed periods of the year. Shooting of elephants (except a duly prescribed rogue or in defence of life or when found upon cultivated lands, or on or in the immediate vicinity of, public roads) is strictly prohibited. The fee for shooting license is Rs. 150 and the licensee is expected to deposit a sum of Rs. 100 for all types of shooting. Any Forest Officer or Police Officer may arrest, without a warrant, any person reasonably suspected of having been concerned in an offence against the shooting rules etc., made by the Government and punishable with imprisonment for one month or upwards if such person refuses to give his name and residence etc. The Departmental Officers are always on the alert to see that no illicit shooting is resorted to in the forests, and are making every possible arrangements to preserve the wild life of the forests. The annual observance of Wild Life Preservation Week helps to educate the masses in this respect and to evoke in them enthusiasm for preserving the nation's rare wild species of birds and animals.

Protection of forests against injury

The injuries to which the forests are liable are from such sources as wind, fire, injurious plants, insects, animals, and man. In the dry months the wind helps to spread forest fires and during south west monsoon, trees are uprooted by it mainly when the ground is sodden within. Fires are frequent in forests adjacent to the *punam* areas and the incidence of fire occurrence is minimised to the maximum extent possible by annual clearing and burning of reserve boundaries and fire tracing of frontier lines etc. The fire attacks in plantations are

reduced by scraping and burning of suitable fire lines between them. Plants especially parasitic climbers are causing great injuries to the tree and hence they are cut and removed from trees as often as found necessary. The defoliators and skeletonizers of teak are certain injurious insects found in the forests. The damage from them is beyond assessment, and every step is being taken by the Department to get rid of this pest. Spraying of insecticides such as D.D.T. over the defoliated teaks is found to be an effective remedy for this and hence this is being tried. Wild elephants are another source of danger to the teak plants. They damage seedlings, break saplings, and bark poles in teak plantations. Bisons, sambur, pigs, squirrels, monkeys etc., also do their part in causing damage to the plants. Shooting down such animals is the remedial measure adopted to avert danger from this source. Illicit felling of trees is resorted to by the public, but the extent of the injury from this source is negligible owing to the presence of extensive areas of private forests. The following statement shows the number of forest offences in the two Forest Divisions of the District from 1955 to 1960.

Year	*Cases by illicit felling, grazing setting fire etc.*		*Miscellaneous*		*Total number of offences in the District*
	Kozhikode	*Nilambur*	*Kozhikode*	*Nilambur*	
1955-56	1	66	6	17	90
1956-57	6	50	54	6	116
1957-58	148	46	160	45	399
1958-59	52	77	119	57	305
1959-60	38	91	79	92	300

Famines

The Malabar District Gazetteer gives a brief historical sketch of famines in the District. The widespread famine of 1865-66 which affected the Madras Presidency affected this District as well. The District also suffered in common with the rest of South India during the critical years of 1876-78, but only to a lesser degree. The North-East monsoon of 1876 failed with the result that the *magaram* crops on the plains perished and the coffee crop in Wynad was damaged. As no grain was available for import from the famine-stricken areas of Mysore and the Districts of the Madras Presidency, famine

threatened Malabar in general, and the Wynad area in particular. 30,000 workers flocked every year from Mysore into Wynad for the picking of coffee, but with the coffee all picked by the end of December in 1876, "the authorities were confronted with the prospect of having thousands of destitute coolies thrown on their hands with no money saved and no inducement to return to Mysore, where famine was worse".[1] A sum of Rs. 5,000 was therefore spent in Wynad for relief early in 1877 and the Mysore Government deported the workers to their homes. But real distress was experienced only in the monsoon months of the year when relief camps were opened in the region. The average number relieved daily in Vayittiri during the months of June to October came to 55, 98, 71, 60 and 72 respectively. At the end of 1890, there was a very general failure of *magaram* rice crop in Tirur Taluk and of the coffee crop in Wynad. The collection of arrears of kist was postponed till the following October. Since 1865-66 there occurred no famine of any great magnitude which needs to be highlighted, though there have been instances of partial failure of crops and consequent dearth of food grains. During the Second World War the District passed through a period of acute food scarcity along with the rest of the State; and Government had to introduce widespread rationing with a view to alleviating the peoples' distress.

Floods

As the District gets excessive rainfall, floods are by no means infrequent. On the 19th and 20th May, 1882 between 18 and 22 inches of rainfall were recorded in 24 hours in different parts of Calicut, and in the monsoon of 1871 the rain gauge at the Collector's Office recorded over six inches a day for six consecutive days. Many huts were destroyed. The Nuradi bridge at Malappuram which is 30 feet above the bed of the Kadalundi river was submerged. The exceptionally heavy monsoon of 1900 culminated on the early morning of August 4 in the land slip at Tamarasseri from where nine human bodies and some dead bullocks were discovered. The exact loss of life and property could not be ascertained. "To show the magnitude of the disaster it was estimated that 12,00,000 cubic feet of earth, rocks, trees and debris had to be removed, the whole surface of the road re-made and re-

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 282.

metalled, a large number of culverts and revetments re-built and a quarter of new road made. These repairs were effected at a cost of considerably more than a *lakh of rupees*".[1] Similar floods occurred in Ernad in the monsoon of 1907.

The heavy rains in July and August 1923 flooded the whole District causing much damage and loss. The rainfall in the erstwhile Taluks of Wynad and Kurumbranad was heavier than any recorded during the previous hundred years. Between July 1, and August 15, there were 97 inches of rain in Wynad as against the average of 73 inches during the previous 10 years. There were numerous landslips. In Calicut town itself, the portions lying close to the Canolly canal and the Kallai river were under water and about 170 houses and huts worth Rs. 1,400 were lost. In the year that followed, there was heavier rainfall. The flood of 1924 (1099 Kollam Era) is commonly known as *"Thonnuttiompathile Vellappokkam"*. Vayittiri recorded 103.54 inches between 12th to 24th July, 1924 (13.30 inches on the 16th July alone). Serious damage was caused by the floods to railways and roads. A large number of bridges were washed away, and there were several breaches in the roads. The Calicut-Mysore Frontier road was badly damaged by landslips. Timber valued at Rs. 3 lakhs stored in the Kallai river was washed into the sea. Water was over-flowing above the railway line for a distance of 55 miles from Olavakkod (Palghat District) to Tirur. The bridge across the river Pooraparamba and a 20 feet girder bridge between Feroke and Kallai were washed away. Numerous landslips occurred on the Ghat roads. Postal and telegraphic communication was interrupted for 10 days. Rs. 4.35 lakhs were distributed by Government under the Loan Acts besides free gifts of money (Rs. 15,000) and timber to poorer people to re-build their houses.

Since then except for occasional floods in the basins of certain rivers causing some damage to habitation and crops, there have been no serious floods in the District till 1961. The floods which occurred in July 1961 were unprecedented in their magnitude and the water level reached the 1924 mark. There was a continuous spell of heavy rains which brought all activities to a standstill. The rains were followed by heavy floods which were the heaviest in the central and southern

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 284.

areas of the District. Several landslides, great and small, occurred in the Wynad area. Water ran several feet deep on most of the District roads and all the metal was washed away. The roads were breached in several places and some disappeared altogether, not even a vestige of the tracks remaining. The water courses that feed the rivers overflowed their banks and converted the green paddy fields through which they ran into placid lakes. Several of the big rivers over-spread the villages affecting a total area of 86,939 acres spread over all the taluks in the District. The floods were at their height from July 3 to July 13, 1961 and from July 21 to July 27, 1961. Almost all the low lying areas were submerged due to the unprecedented rise in the water level of the rivers, while the mountainous regions were affected by the large number of landslides resulting in the destruction of buildings and causing death to men and animals. In several places people had to be rescued from the tops of houses and coconut trees whereto they had been driven for safety. 24 persons lost their lives in these floods. The number of persons injured came to 11. The flood resulted in the collapse of 1995 houses valued at Rs. 4,24,605. The number of houses damaged came to 2,354 and it was estimated that an amount of Rs. 1,63,450 would have to be spent on repairing them. About 14,233 persons were rendered homeless. The number of cattle injured was 149 and the loss caused thereby was estimated at Rs. 9,525. The crops on about 10,848 acres worth about Rs. 9,74,939 were damaged and the extent of the damage to other properties (trees uprooted, washed away etc.) came to Rs. 3 11,000. More than 34,287 logs of timber alone were washed away. The total number of persons evacuated from the flood affected areas was 53,135.

The floods led to serious disruption of the transport and communication system of the District. The Calicut-Gudalur road, Calicut-Nilambur-Gudalur road, Calicut-Malappuram road etc. were badly damaged by landslips, erosion of the margins, and wash-away of culverts, and it has been estimated that an amount of Rs. 31,45,000 has to be spent for bringing them back to their original condition. The collapse of the bridges and the breaches on the roads rendered contacts with the neighbouring Districts impossible and trade was paralysed for a time. Even postal and telegraphic communication was interrupted for days together. Further, heavy damage was

caused to Government properties at various places. The standing paddy crop in the Seed Farm at Cheruvannur was damaged and the loss sustained was valued at Rs. 1,253. Besides, the bund of the Seed Farm at Cheruvannur, Koliyadi weir in Nenmom (South Wynad), vented dam at Manimoot (Ernad), Manavedan dam at Ernad, vented dams across Kunduthodu in Kappilthodu at Thonipara in Ernad, the Cheriyamundan channel in Thalakadathur amsom (Tirur), the lift irrigation scheme at Irimbiliyam in Tirur etc. were damaged causing a loss of about Rs. 50,000 to the State exchequer. The wharf wall at Beypore was also damaged and slight leakage occurred to the western side of the slipway. The force of the wind was terrific at sea and the roofing of the Piershed at South Pier, Calicut, was blown off. The total damage caused to Government properties by the floods in the District was estimated at Rs. 32,05,505.

Relief measures were immediately taken in hand on a large scale. A District Flood Relief Committee was set up under the Chairmanship of the District Collector to coordinate the activities of the official and non-official agencies working in the field. More than 160 relief centres were opened and 50,949 persons were accommodated in them. Up to October 1961 a sum of Rs. 1,31,449 was distributed by the Government among the victims of the flood for the purchase of rice etc., and also as cash grants for reconstruction of damaged houses. At the same time the non-official agencies collected and distributed a sum of Rs. 2,000 and 606 bags of rice among the victims.

The Government of Kerala have recently taken up schemes for the permanent control of floods in the District. The most important scheme under execution is the construction of a regulator cum bridge across Keeranellur river at 16|4 of Malappuram-Parappanangadi road. It is intended to control the flood waters of the Kadalundi, which is the problem river of the Malabar area.

Storms, cyclones, etc.

In addition to the above natural calamities, the hurricane of 1848 and the cyclones of 1925 and 1932 also wrought some havoc in certain localities of the District. The cyclone of 1932 was one of the severe cyclonic storms that visited the area. A strong wind blew over portions of Calicut, Kurumbranad, Ernad and Quilandi which blew down a large number of trees

and destroyed many houses. Telegraph and telephone wires were cut and roads blocked by fallen trees, seriously interrupting communications. Some deaths also occurred due to the collapse of houses or the falling of trees. Among the buildings which collapsed in Calicut was the Malabar Club on the sea front. Even though tremors have been felt in 1881, twice in 1882, in 1889, 1904 and quite recently in 1961, they have never done any serious damage.

Sea erosion and tidal overflow

A danger which the coastal areas have to face is sea erosion. But there has been no devastating sea erosion in the District resulting in loss of life and property except those that followed in the wake of floods. Another problem connected with the sea is tidal overflow. The high tidal waves breaking against the beach with great velocity overflow the beach crests and spread over the low lying lands in the interior, destroying dwelling houses, paddy lands, and other cultivated lands. This action of the waves pollutes all the inland water sources, making them unfit for cultivation and domestic use. However, the havoc wrought by tidal overflow is not serious in the District. Certain protection works recommended by the Central Water and Power Research Station, Poona, are being executed to counteract the evil effects of both sea erosion and tidal overflow. The construction of two sea walls with groynes at Calicut South Beach for a length of 5,900 ft. is under way. The estimated cost of the work is Rs. 15 lakhs. It has also been proposed to put up 12 groynes at Beypore sea mouth at an estimated cost of Rs. 12 lakhs. and to construct sea walls with groynes at Parappanangadi in Tirur Taluk and at Kollam beach in Quilandi at an estimated cost of Rs. 13.6 lakhs, and Rs. 29.5 lakhs respectively.

APPENDIX—I

Area of Government and Private Forests—Surveyed and Unsurveyed

Taluk	*Surveyed forests*	*Unsurveyed forests*	*Total*
	Acres	*Acres*	*Acres*
Government forests:			
South Wynad	82,671.00	..	82,671.00
Ernad	4,563.20	82,875.20	87,438.40
do.	14,156.80 (leased reserve forests)	..	14,156.80
Total	1,01,391.00	82,875.20	1,84,266.20
Private forests:			
Ernad	1,57,053.00	1,21,274.80	2,78,327.80
Quilandi and Badagara	32,572.58	56,380.00	88,952.58
Kozhikode	33,031.00	57,100.00	90,131.00
South Wynad	90,689.60	..	90,689.60
Total	3,13,346.18	2,34,754.80	5,48,100.98

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Old time industries.

The Kozhikode District represents one of the industrially advanced areas of the State. Several industries have been flourishing here from early days. These old time industries were mostly run on a small scale in the cottages of the artisans themselves. Regarding the industries in the erstwhile Malabar District in 1903 the *Malabar District Gazetteer* observes as follows: "The forests that clothe the Western Ghats from head to foot, and cover a great part of the Wynad plateau, besides making Calicut one of the most important timber marts in India, support thousands of carpenters, sawyers and woodcutters and their numerous progeny. On the many rivers of the District and the backwaters into which they discharge, an immense fleet of boats plies for hire, and numbers earn their living by propelling them. More important still industrially are the palmyra, the sago and above all the coconut palm. Toddy-drawing alone supports 50,000 people; coir rope-making and the manufacture of palm leaf hats, umbrellas, baskets and mats are all important trades. Trade statistics show moreover that products of the coconut more than pay for the grain imported into Malabar, and thus indirectly they support the numerous dealers who distribute the grain all the district over. The standard of comfort is comparatively high. Houses built of laterite and roofed with tiles meet one at every turn. Tea in the cup is sold in every petty bazaar, and is being drunk more and more every year. The native is also acquiring a taste and creating a demand for soda water and various syrups. Malabar has more cooks, barbers, household servants, tailors, cap-makers, stone-workers and knife-grinders than any other district, and the learned professions are strongly represented. Manufactures, however, are still scanty and one might almost write today as the Joint Commissioners did in 1793 'its manufactures, unless vegetable oils

and coir fall under that denomination, there are hardly any other".[1] Most of the old time industries of Malabar catalogued above survive to this day in the Kozhikode District though they have declined in importance. It would not be out of place if special mention is made of a few of such industries which have completely gone into oblivion.

Toddy-tapping.

In the Kozhikode District the coconut was the tree most commonly tapped for toddy. With the introduction of prohibition, the industry fell on evil days. Most of the tappers have now turned to other pursuits.

Leaf-umbrella and hat manufacture

Formerly the manufacture of umbrellas and hats out of palm leaf was carried on in every Taluk of the District. This was peculiar to South West India and was the hereditary profession of the Panan caste, whose members were also exorcists and devil dancers. These umbrellas and hats served a useful purpose by protecting the labourers from sun and rain. The more aristocratic members of the community considered it a fashion to go about with these umbrellas. The frame work and 'leg' as it was called of the umbrella were usually made of bamboo. This part of the umbrella was made by male members of the Panan community, while their women folk attended to the covering of the umbrellas. The price of an umbrella varied between 3 and 12 nPs. Dyed grasses were woven into the frame work of the more expensive umbrellas. With the coming into vogue of cloth umbrella, the former were discarded and the industry died a natural death.

Cap-making.

The manufacture of Mappila skull caps which when embroidered were comparatively expensive and considered a luxury is now practically extinct in the District. Even in 1903 the industry had shifted to Talangeri two miles from Kasargod, where it flourished as a cottage industry. At that time about 150,000 caps were being produced annually and exported to Arabia, Basra, Colombo, Malaya, Madras and Bombay.

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, pp.248-49.

POWER

The Kozhikode District receives its power requirements from the Pykara Electricity system in Madras State under an arrangement that was in existence prior to the re-organisation of States. There are 3 receiving stations in the District at Kuthumunda, Kozhikode and Nilambur. While the first two are 66 K.V. sub-stations, the Nilambur sub-station is a 11 K.V. one. 45 towns and villages had been electrified by March, 1959.

The Urakuzhi scheme is the only Hydro Electric Project under investigation in this District. This scheme contemplates the construction of a reservoir above the Urakuzhi falls in the head reaches of the Murat river. The average annual rainfall of the catchment above the proposed dam site, as obtained from a private estate, near Kuttiyadi is 224". Approximately 2,500 Million Cubic feet of water will be impounded in this reservoir from a catchment area of 15.5 sq. miles and this water will be diverted through a tunnel and then through pipe lines to a power house located below the falls. It has roughly been estimated, that 37,300 K.W. of power at 60% load factor can be generated from this scheme. The approximate cost of the scheme will be Rs. 3.75 crores.

Three sub-stations two of 66 K.V. capacity and one of 110 K.V. capacity are under construction at Kozhikode and Malappuram. In this District there is also a private agency engaged in the distribution of electricity viz., the West Coast Electric Supply Corporation Ltd., Calicut which caters to the power needs of Calicut town. It serves an area with a radius of 12 miles with Kallai Railway Station as the centre. The following statement conveys an idea of the functioning of the Corporation:

1.	Total units sold to consumers (1959-60) ..	15,226,905
2.	Total number of consumers in 1959-60	
	(a) Industrial ..	387
	(b) Otherwise ..	8,250
3.	Number of street lights in 1959-60 ..	3,998
4.	Number of sub-stations in 1959-60 ..	57
5.	Duration of supply ..	24 hours per day
6.	Total connected load (1959-60) ..	13,979 K. W.
7.	Net profit earned by the Corporation in 1959-60 ..	Rs. 1,16,213·64 nP

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES OF THE DISTRICT

Mining and heavy industries.

There are no mining and heavy industrial units in the District. However, it may be of historical interest to note that in the Wynad region numerous gold bearing quartz lodes were opened up and worked between 1880 and 1900. Most of them were said to contain an average of less than three penny weights per ton. In the year 1901, the Government of India deputed Mr. Haydon of the Geological Survey of India and Dr. Hatch, the Survey's Mining Specialist to examine the mines, and the conclusion arrived at was that with the methods then available for the treatment of low grade ores, there was no hope of gold mining in the Wynad becoming remunerative.[1] There has been no mining for gold in the District since 1915. A license for prospecting for gold was granted to a European Engineer of Trichinopoly in 1926, but it was cancelled in 1929.

Large Scale Industries.

Large scale industrial concerns sprang up only in the closing years of the 19th century. The following are the important large scale industries in the District[2]:—Textile Mills, Saw Mills, Match Factories, Umbrella manufacture, Soap Works, Brick and Tile Factories, Printing, Furniture, Beedi and Cigar Factories etc. The establishment of these industries has contributed much towards the improvement of the economy of the District, as a large percentage of the population derive their livelihood from industrial pursuits.

Timber industry.

The timber industry is of great economic importance. The forests of South Wynad and Nilambur produce immense quantities of magnificent timber and the majority of them are so placed that their exploitation is comparatively easy. The trees after being felled and roughly squared are dragged by elephants to the nearest road or river to be carried or floated to the depots of the timber merchants on the coast. The former

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1. Messrs Haydon and Hatch's paper in the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*.

2. As enumerated and classified in the *Malabar District Census Hand Book* (1951), p. 7.

is a more expensive method of conveyance and is resorted to only where floating is impossible. A feature of the industry in this District is the concentration of the units in and around Kallai. Its localisation here is pre-eminently beneficial to the industry as water, rail and road transport facilities are easily available. Kallai is the second largest timber yard in the world. Writing in 1903 Innes observed "In the season the river at Kallai is a wonderful sight, the water being scarcely visible for the thousands of logs floating on its surface. The logs are left in the water until they are sold; and eventually they are exported by sea and rail to Bombay, Madras, Kolar and other parts of India. Three steam saw mills are working at Kallai".[1] But today there are as many as 46 saw mills in the District. In these mills the timber logs are sawn into different types of finished planks, reapers and sleepers for use in the Railways. The finished timber goods are marketed both locally and are also exported to foreign countries. According to the report furnished by the District Industries Officer, Kozhikode, about five thousand workers are employed in these saw mills.

Furniture making has also sprung up in this District as a corollary to the establishment of many saw mills. The principal raw material required for furniture making viz., finished timber, is easily available, and that too in abundant quantity from the neighbouring saw mills and timber merchants. There is only one large scale factory solely engaged in the making of furniture—the Standard Furniture Company—located at Kallai. Nearly 500 workers are employed here. Different and attractive pieces of furniture are made and the products find a ready and responsive market all over India and even South East Asia. Since most of the furniture making units are small units, the subject will be discussed in detail in the section on Small Scale Industries. However it would be pertinent here to recall the observation made nearly 60 years ago by C.A. Innes in the *Malabar District Gazetteer*: "Next to Madras City, Calicut has the largest business in furniture-making in the Presidency; every important town in the District has its furniture shop where tables, chairs, almirahs, shelves and cots are made and sold. Malabar wood work is known favourably throughout Southern India"[2]. These remarks are applicable to the present Kozhikode District as well.

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 252.
2. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 253.

Tile industry.

Tiles are manufactured extensively in this District. Large quantities of white clay and pottery clay are found here which are utilised for the manufacture of tiles, bricks and potteries[1]. The industry sprang up owing to the endeavours of the Basel Mission Establishment. The first factory was opened at Pudiyarakallu near Calicut in 1874. The tiles manufactured at Kozhikode are famous all over the country under the generic name of "Calicut" tile and are exported even to foreign countries like Burma, Ceylon, Malaya and Australia. Clay is obtained from paddy flats near river banks and stored for a year. It is then moistened with water and mixed with river sand. Most of the tile factories in the District are located at Feroke, 7 miles from Calicut. This place is ideally suited for the industry since it possesses an abundant clay supply and transport facilities. The tile factories also manufacture bricks, clay pipes, ridge tiles, flooring tiles, flour pots, ventilators, pottery ware, etc. There are about 30 factories in the District employing in all 6,000 workers. All the factories are privately owned. Some of the tile factories are small scale units. The total capital invested in this industry has been placed at about Rs. 5 crores. The annual production of tiles ranges from 800 to 900 lakhs of tiles valued at Rs. 9.6 lakhs. Minimum wages have been introduced in the tile industry. Increasing mechanisation of tile factories by the introduction of modern devices worked by power such as D' Airing Pug Mills, Revolving Presses, Chain Conveyors elevators, Pug Mills, etc. has been an interesting feature of the rapid strides towards modernisation of the tile industry.

The Soap industry.

Soap manufacture in this District has developed sufficiently enough to be classified as a large industry. The principal raw materials used in the industry are vegetable and animal oils, fats, rosin, caustic soda, caustic potash, common salt, colours and perfumery articles as well as packing materials. There are 3 registered soap factories in Kozhikode employing 200 persons, besides innumerable small scale units engaged in soap manufacture. Of these the Kerala Soap Institute (originally known as Government Soap Works) is an undertaking of the Kerala Government with a capital of Rs. 8.3 lakhs. This Institute is the oldest of the commercial

1. *Census of India* (1951), Vol. III, Madras and Coorg, Part I, General Report, p. 122.

concerns started by the Department of Industries and Commerce of the composite State of Madras. It was started in 1914, at Tanur by the late Sir Frederick Nicholson as an experimental unit for making Fish Oil Rosin Soap for the eradication of certain pests which infest mango, tea, coffee and rubber plantations. When its activities expanded it was transferred in 1916, to a rented building in Calicut, where the manufacture of regular household soaps was begun. When the work further expanded, the Government acquired a site and established the factory in its present building. The necessary plant and machinery were erected in 1922 and regular operations commenced in 1923. Gradually a toilet soap plant was ordered and the equipment and machinery were improved from time to time. With an installed capacity of 450 tons per annum, this institute now produces high class toilet, washing, medicated, shaving and other kinds of soap. Soap is manufactured by three processes—cold, semi-boiled and fully boiled. It is proposed to step up aggregate soap production in the institute to 700 tons per annum. For this purpose steps are being taken to instal a modern labour and time saving Italian 'Mazzonni' plant. Plans are also afoot to start a unit under the institute to produce 200 tons of different varieties of synthetic detergents annually.

The Institute also provides training facilities in soap making and furnishes necessary information and advice to the various private soap industries on matters of technical interest. The system of training was instituted in 1927 and has continued to this day. There are two courses of instruction, one the long term course (for S.S.L.C. standard trainees) and the other the short term course (for graduates in science). This has served to stimulate the growth of the industry by the employment of technically qualified persons. The institute is the only of its kind which gives both practical and theoretical training in soap making. During this long period it has turned out several students from far and near, many of whom have either started their own soap factories or got employed elsewhere.

At present there are 63 workmen including 7 women who are employed by this institute. The workers are classified into skilled (2 grades) and unskilled (1 grade). The skilled workers in grade I get a daily wage varying from Rs. 2 to Rs. Rs. 4; while the skilled workers in grade II are paid a wage

varying from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 3. In the case of unskilled workers a minimum wage of Re. 1 has been fixed. The sale proceeds of the Institute amounted to Rs. 11.20 lakhs during 1958-59 and the net profit for the year was Rs. 51,000.

Government Hydrogenation Factory

The Government Hydrogenation Factory is the only factory of its kind in the public sector in India. It is situated on the beach road in West Hill in beautiful surroundings with a glistening sea on the West and surrounded on all other sides by coconut gardens. The Factory is only a couple of furlongs from the West Hill Railway Station and about 3 miles from the centre of Calicut. It is spread over an area of more than 6 acres and is provided with the most modern equipment. A sum of Rs. 18 lakhs has been invested in this project. With a view to coping with the increased war time requirements of the Defence Services as well as the civilian population, the Madras Government began in the year 1945 to explore all possible avenues for increasing the production of vegetable ghee. Accordingly the Government approved a scheme for the establishment of a state owned Hydrogenation Factory at Calicut for the production of vegetable ghee and in October, 1945, they sanctioned the detailed estimate for its establishment, the capacity of the plant being 15 tons (5 tons of refining of oils and 10 tons of hydrogenation per day). It was also envisaged that the factory should provide facilities to train students and technical personnel in oil technology and conduct research on vegetable oils for improving its nutritive value. The construction of the factory was completed in 1953. Trial runs of the factory were taken in April, 1954 It was engaged in refining of oils for the Government Oil Factory, Calicut till 1958. In March, 1958 the Government of Kerala decided to run the factory departmentally.

The following are the chief features of the manufacturing process in this industry. Groundnut oil is first neutralised to remove acids from the oil. After drying the oil under vacuum the oil is decolourised with special bleaching earth and activated carbon. The oil is filtered off and then deodorized by steam under very high vacuum. The decolourised oil can then be sold as refined Groundnut oil. This oil can then be hydrogenated by passing hydrogen gas through oil in

which a catalyst like nickel has been suspended. The hydrogenated oil generally goes through the refining procedure once again. Then the Vanaspati is conditioned in a cold room after packing. The Plant has a capacity of 10 tons of Vanaspati and 5 tons of refined oil per three shifts a day. At this rate of production the value of turn-over of the factory will be nearly a crore of rupees. The mechanised nature of the industry does not require any large labour force. About 50 to 60 workers are enough even at its maximum production capacity. The main raw materials required are groundnut oil, sesamum oil and cotton seed oil. All these are being imported from the neighbouring States of Madras and Mysore.

Government Oil Factory, Calicut

Started in 1940 as a part of the Kerala Soap Institute, this factory became an independent unit in 1942. During the war it catered to defence requirements. Later it switched over to peace time needs. There are 63 persons employed in this factory and the total capital invested is Rs. 4,50,000. The factory manufactures such well known items as Sea Gold Shark Liver Oil, Stay Fit Shark Liver Oil, Adamin Liquid and Capsules, high potency vitamin 'A' oil and veterinary brand shark liver oil. During the Third Five Year Plan period it is proposed to undertake the distillation and concentration of vitamin 'A'. Besides there is also a scheme by which the factory will embark on the hydrogenation of fish oil. The gross sales of the factory in 1958-59 amounted Rs. 6.61 lakhs and the profit earned was Rs. 91,851. It may also be mentioned here that the Shark Liver Oil Factory at Trivandrum is being worked as a Unit attached to the Government Oil Factory, Calicut under the administrative control of the Oil Chemist.

Cashew industry

There are two cashew factories in the Kozhikode District, employing in all about 1,500 persons—Kerala Cashew Works, Calicut and the Coffee Curing Works, Feroke, both owned by M|s. Pierce Leslie & Company. In these factories raw nuts are processed and exported to foreign countries.

Beedi and cigar industries

Though tobacco is not grown in this District, Beedi and Cigar industries are well established here. The report of the Tripartite Committee for Beedi and Cigar Industries (1958)

shows that in Kozhikode District alone the industries provide employment to 17,000 persons. The rapid growth of the industry has been facilitated not only by the availability of the raw materials of tobacco and wrapper leaves, but also by the abundant supply of intelligent labour capable of quickly learning the simple craft of beedi making. The manufacture of beedies is a simple process, which can be learned in about four to six months' time. The beedi manufacture consists of six processes, viz., (1) the preparation and blending of tobacco, (2) cutting of wrapper leaves, (3) rolling of beedies and tying up, (4) closing the ends, (5) warming, and (6) labelling and packing. The raw materials used for beedi making are processed tobacco and wrapper leaves. The former are imported from Gujarat and Guntur. The industry is mostly in the hands of capitalists and the labour is mostly unskilled. A feature of the beedi industry in the District is that both women and children find employment in this industry. It may be noted that women are not employed in this industry in the Travancore-Cochin area, though children are sometimes employed. Women employed in the industry seldom go to the premises of the beedi manufactories to attend to their work. They are mostly home workers to whom materials are supplied by the agents of the manufacturers at their doors, the finished products being collected in the evening or the next day. The children employed in the industry are given in addition to leaf cutting and closing the ends all kinds of sundry jobs like getting tea or betels from the nearest tea shop etc.

The inclemency of the weather is a big handicap to this industry. In rainy days tobacco is not fit to be rolled into beedi and the work has to be suspended. Accumulation of stock also sometimes leads to curtailment or stoppage of work. In this industry there are no fixed hours of work, the wages being paid on piece rate basis. The labourers have to work under the most insanitary conditions and in all sorts of places. They are not given proper seating arrangements with the result that they have to sit on the floor cross legged in a stooping manner which in the long run affects their health. Sometimes the labourers have to work in small rooms without windows. A large number of them also work on the sides of roads and streets. The Tripartite Committee referred to earlier has noted with astonishment that they hardly came across an ideal workshop in the whole State in point of cleanliness and neatness, but it has also recorded that the Yogi

Beedi Factory at Kozhikode is a singular exception. In addition to the beedi factories under the private sector the industry has of late been organised also on co-operative lines. Beedi Co-operative Societies have been set up at Quilandi, Badagara and Balusseri and they receive substantial assistance from the Government.

The Cigar industry in Kerala is confined almost exclusively to the Cannanore and Kozhikode Districts. The number of workers engaged in it is roughly 2,500. In some places Cigar is produced in factories and in other places in small shops. Two workers are invariably required for making Cigars, one to prepare the fillers and the other for rolling and finishing. One third of the wages goes to the worker who makes the fillers and the rest goes to the other. In the manufacture of Cigar no machine is used. The process consists of six main stages. (1) Stripping the tobacco, (2) Cutting of the binder, (3) Making of the filler, (4) Rolling of Cigars, (5) Finishing and (6) Packing. The Cigar industry in the State is a minor one and it is confined to the North Malabar area. Nowhere in the Travancore-Cochin area it is manufactured.

Printing industry

The Printing industry has developed considerably in the recent past. According to the information furnished by the District Collectors and the Labour Commissioner to the Minimum Wages Committee for Printing Presses (1958) there are 78 printing presses in the Kozhikode District. Most of the presses come under the category of small scale industry and are established under the private sector. Most of them have only limited number of workers. It is significant to note that apart from the Government Presses, Trivandrum, and Ernakulam there are only two Presses in Kerala employing over 100 workers. One of these viz., the Mathrubhoomi Printing Press which employs about 200 workers is in the Kozhikode District. There are also two printing presses in the District which have been organised on co-operative lines. They are the Paraspara Sahaya Co-operative Printing Works and the Prakasa Kaumudi Printing Works Co-operative Society, Calicut. The latter society is a State aided one.

Textiles

The oldest textile factory was started by the Basel Mission at Calicut and it had branches at Nittur, Chombala

and Kodakkal, a suburb of Calicut. For finer varieties of goods, foreign (chiefly English) yarn was used; and some dyeing was also done in these factories. During the Great War of 1914-18 the Mission industrial concerns were sold to the well known Commonwealth Trust and now continue under the latter's management. There are at present about 21 textile factories in the District employing about 2,000 workers. Of these the most important is the Malabar Spinning and Weaving Company which is under Government management. These units turn out sheets, towels, table clothes, shirtings, ginghams and mercerised silks. There are also a few knitting factories at Feroke and Calicut where hosiery ware of all kinds are made. The yarn for all the factories is obtained from outside the District, especially from Madurai and Coimbatore in Madras State.

Umbrella Stick Manufacturing Industry

This is one of the well established industries in the Kozhikode District. Bamboo stick whch is one of the principal raw materials required by this industry is available in plenty in the forests of the District and these are processed into umbrella handles. The iron ribs of the umbrella and the cloth are imported from Germany or England, and used in the manufacture of umbrellas. Kozhikode supplies umbrellas to all parts of India.

Other Industries

The Kerala Chemicals and Fertilizers have a factory at West Hill on the outskirts of Calicut town, which manufactures chemical fertilisers.

The Malabar Fisheries at Chaliyam about 8 miles from Calicut have a plant, which manufactures stainless steel utensils and tin containers. More than 100 workers are employed in this unit.

SMALL SCALE AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

Coir

The origin of the coir industry in the District dates back to the 15th century. The main causes of its localisation are the abundant supply of raw materials, existence of backwaters useful for retting, cheap water transport and cheap labour. Coir manufacture is carried on both as a factory industry and as a cottage industry. While the spinning of coir yarn is

mainly a cottage industry the manufacture of mats and mattings and ropes is generally done as a factory industry. There are 13 factories in the District employing 13,000 workers. The uses to which coir yarn is put are numerous. Ropes, mats rugs and carpets are made of coir yarn. Coir bags are commonly used in estates as packing material. Coir dust, an important by-product, is utilised as packing, stuffing and heat insulating material and for soil conditioning. Coir offers a vast field for experiment and research on its uses. The peculiarity of the industry is that no tool or equipment like the charkha is used for coir spinning; it is done only by hand. The Coir School at Beypore teaches young trainees the use of charkha for spinning coir yarn, but none of the families engaged in coir spinning in the locality has taken to the use of charkha. The preparaton of retted fibre for spinning of yarn is an elaborate and time-consuming process spread over a year. Raw coconut husks are buried in pits dug in shallow backwaters, covered with mud and leaves, and left for a period ranging from seven months to one year. A pit is capable of holding 1,000 to 1,500 husks. The wide expanse of backwaters in the West Coast is a natural advantage. Periodical flow of salt water from the sea helps in the decomposition and cleansing of the husks and in getting fibre of superior quality having golden yellow colour. Beypore, Panniyankara, Valayanad, Cheruvannur and Nallalam are favourably situated for retting husks. When the husks are well soaked, they are removed from the pits and thoroughly cleaned and beaten with short wooden mallets to remove the pith from the fibre. The clean fibre is then dried in the sun and is ready for being spun into yarn. Merchants or dealers who can afford to invest large sums undertake large scale soaking and employ labour for beating the husks and spinning the fibre. The method of extracting unsoaked fibre is less elaborate. It is followed in places where there are no facilities for soaking, e.g., Edakkad, Khasba, Nedungottur etc. Green husks are beaten without being soaked and it is difficult to remove the adhesive pith completely. The yarn spun out of unsoaked fibre is not considered as good as soaked yarn. The chief centres of the District where coconut husk is converted into fibre are Beypore, Parappanangadi, Tirurangadi, Tikkodi, Quilandi and several villages along the coast. The chief varieties of coir produced are Beypore, Quilandi, Tirur coir, Pachachoody, Quilandi choody and Kottakkal choody. They derive their names from

the centres in which they are spun. It may be noted that each centre has developed special skill and processes and each variety of yarn has therefore its special characteristics. The main characteristics which make for quality in coir yarn are cleanliness from pith and impurities, evenness of twist, colour, etc.

Copra industry

This industry constitutes an important means of livelihood for the people of the region. It is carried on by a few persons as their main occupation, but a large number combine in the production of coir, copra and coconut oil. Coconuts which are the only raw material required are obtained from the gardens owned by those engaged in this industry or purchased from outsiders. The tools needed are few and simple; they consist of two or three chopping knives, a couple of husking bars and four to five coir net bags. Copra is of two kinds, the edible one and that used for oil crushing. The former involves a longer period of preparation. The coconuts are dried, generally in the warmth of kitchen lofts, for seven to eight months. This process enables easy separation of kernel from the shells. This copra is used for culinary purposes all over the country, especially in North India. In the case of copra intended for oil crushing coconuts are dried in sun for two days and the kernel after removal is dried for another four days. Only male workers are found in this industry.

Rural cabinet making industry

The carpenters of this District are noted for their skill in wood work, and cabinet making as a cottage industry has been for years an important means of livelihood for many families. The excellence of the wood, combined with the dexterity and skill of the local craftsmen have built for the furniture made in this District a reputation for strength, durability, and finish. There are about 50 units engaged in this industry. Most of the units are concentrated in Nagaram and Khasba, parts of Calicut while the others are located in Naduvattam, Beypore, Pannankara, Cheruvannur and Edakkod. In Nagaram and Khasba 60% of the carpenters work in furniture factories, 25% are engaged in miscellaneous work like house construction, repairs etc., and 15% in the workshops of cabinet makers. All types of furniture required for household use and office purposes are manufactured, the

main items being chairs, tables, cots, almirahs, stools, teapoys etc. In addition, a few artistic utilities are also manufactured, usually on order. The raw materials required by this industry are wood of different varieties, polish, and accessories like screws, locks, mirrors, etc. The main raw material, wood, is easily available in the centre. The requisite timber is usually purchased by the cabinet makers from timber merchants. It is not common for a timber merchant to take to this industry in addition to his trade. The types of wood in use are rose wood, white teak wood, teak and country wood in order of their importance. The highest demand is for furniture made of rose wood. The expenditure on wood forms about 85% of the total expenditure on raw materials, and that on screws, locks and their accessories and polish about 15%. The principal tools used are saw, hammer, measuring rod, *'Kadasal'*, chisel, *tamasu* and planning and drilling machines. While the ordinary cabinet makers use hard saws for sawing timber, the saw mills and bigger cabinet making units use circular or band saws. A feature of this industry is that women are not employed in any of its processes. The entire output is disposed off locally to merchants, who export the furniture by rail to towns within the State and other cities like Mysore, Bombay and Calcutta.

Splints and veneers

There are 11 units engaged in the manufacture of splints and veneers and they employ nearly 800 workers. These factories turn out the basic ingredients of the match, the stick and the box components. They tend to agglomerate principally at Feroke. Cheap transport of timber along waterways and facilities for quick despatch of finished products over rail account for this tendency towards localization. The main function of the splints and veneers factory is the conversion of raw timber into match sticks and veneers of appropriate sizes. Softwood such as *Elavu* and *Palai* is first cut into cylindrical pieces (cross-cutting). The outer bark of these logs is removed by axing (debarking). The debarked pieces are placed on a machine where, an operator assisted by a few, splits it into thin leaf-like sheets (peeling). Logs of *Elavu* are used for making veneers (components of boxes) and *Palai*, *Mutti* and *Kambili* for making splints. These operations are performed by male workers. The long peeled sheets are taken up and hung aloft for drying. These are then placed one above

the other and pressed into a compact column in wooden trays (veneers tray setting and splints tray setting) by female workers. Inner veneers (the sheet for making inner box) and outer veneers (the sheet for outer box) are arranged separately. The dried veneers are cut into appropriate pieces on a veneer chopping machine. The outer and inner veneers are bundled separately (this task too is done largely by women) and despatched to dipping factories. The splints sheets are in a like manner arranged in trays (splints tray setting)—again a task earmarked for women—and sliced into sticks of required length. The splints are dried in the sun (yard workers include men and women) and 'levelled' (a process to weed out sub-standard sticks). These are then packed in gunny bags and taken out of the factory. All splints and veneers factories use some machinery or other. In a typical unit we come across at least one each of the machines for (1) splints peeling (2) box peeling (3) splints chopping, (4) veneers chopping, (5) pedal cutting and (6) electric motor or steam boiler with an oil engine. In several units there are in addition a levelling machine, a knife sharpening machine, a circular saw, and grinding machine. The bulk of the labour, however, has little to do with machine of any kind. Despite natural advantages the splints and veneers industry has not made satisfactory progress in Kerala. The limiting factors in industrial expansion are usually the dearth of entrepreneurial talent, scarcity of raw materials, shortage of capital and shrinking markets and the inadequacy of dipping factories.

There are only two dipping factories in this District employing about 96 workers. The work in dipping starts with frame-filling which is done at home by women, adolescents and children. Splints are fixed in a geometrical pattern on square wooden frames which usually contain 2,500 groves (50 lathes of 50 perforated holes). These frames are taken to the dipping factory where they are properly levelled and paraffined. The chemicals required for dipping are ground and mixed by qualified workers and the frames are dipped with the chemicals and kept for drying.

Outer boxes and inner boxes are also made in cottages out of the veneers supplied by the factory. Boxes are side-painted and dried in the sun. The filling of boxes with sticks (box-filling) is again the work of women and adolescents. This is followed by the pasting of labels and bandroll to the boxes.

The finished matches are packed into bundles of a dozen each (dozen packing) and 5 gross match boxes are again packed as a bigger bundle (bundling). Dipping factories are obliged to provide separate accommodation for ensuring that dipped matches are under the custody of the Central Excise till these are released for sale on payment of the excise duty.

Oil and Rice Mills.

There are more than 25 oil and rice mills scattered all over the District. Pressing of coconut oil is the chief function of the oil mills. Almost the entire labour force in this industry consists of men. The chief oil extracted is coconut oil. The requisite raw material is copra, which is either purchased or prepared from coconuts. As the quality of the oil depends mainly on the quality of the copra, care is taken to avoid the inferior type of copra obtained in the monsoon. The refuse from oil milling viz., *Poonac* is used locally as cattle feeder and as manure. The surplus is exported. Other oils made in the District are gingelly, castor, *iruppa, ungu, puvam, niretti* and *veppu*. The last five are substituted for coconut oil in the interior Taluks where the palm does not thrive, and are used for lighting. The last is also used medicinally for external application as a cure for rheumatism. Castor is an insignificant crop in the District, but gingelly is one of the chief dry crops, and its oil is extracted in much the same way as coconut oil, and is used for cooking and for oil bath. Oil is also pressed from groundnut and *morati* seeds. Groundnut is generally imported from Pollachi, Coimbatore and other places and *morati* seeds are available locally. These oils are also used in the manufacture of soaps and the *poonac* or cake is used for manure. The demand in Europe for lemon grass oil, which is an ingredient in many perfumes, is considerable and prices have recently soared high. The grass grows wild in the neighbourhood of Pandikkad and Angadipuram in the Ernad and Tirur Taluks. It is boiled with water in a huge copper cauldron; the resulting liquid drips into a flat open vessel from a pipe at the bottom of the cauldron, which is regulated by a tap, and the oil is skimmed off with a spoon. The industry is mainly in the hands of the Mappilas. The oil is taken to Cochin for export.

Sericulture industry.

This has been established at Ambalavayal in South Wynad Taluk. The location of this industry depends upon the cold

climatic conditions under which the silkworm may survive and develop, and cultivation of Mulberry plant is possible. There is a five acre Sericulture Farm at Ambalavayal where the rearing of silk worms into cocoons is attended to. For the existence of this industry, the mulberry plantations are essential, as the silk worms are fed by the mulberry leaves. The Farm at Ambalavayal is under the management of the State Government. Rearing work is also taught to the local inhabitants (the ex-service men colonists) as a cottage industry with a view to providing them with employment, and they are supplied with the seeds for rearing, and finally harvesting the cocoons. The inhabitants are compelled to plant mulberry in their own gardens for feeding the worms, and to encourage them in this line of the industry, the cultivators are granted loans by the Government for planting mulberry. The cocoons harvested by the sericulturists are purchased by the Department at fixed prices according to the quality of cocoons produced. The cocoons are at present marketed at Kollegal and Mysore for being reeled into silk yarn, as there are no arrangements for reeling cocoons in this District. There are now about 78 private sericulturists in South Wynad Taluk engaged in this industry.

Handloom industry.

This industry is one of the major cottage industries in this District. There are nearly 15,000 looms supporting about 75,000 persons. One peculiarity of the handloom industry in Kozhikode is that most of the weavers are caste weavers depending solely on this industry for their livelihood. They are chiefly Chaliyans. Accordng to tradition the origin of the industry dates back from the last days of Cheraman Perumal when the Zamorins of Kozhikode brought from Kanchipuram eight families and their dependants for the purpose of weaving silk textiles required for the famous *'Mamamkam'* celebration. It is said that the present weavers are the descendants of the families mentioned above. It may be noted in this connection that 'calico' takes its name from Calicut. Dr. Buchanan has recorded how in 1800 Mr. Torin the then Commercial Resident of the English East India Company was endeavouring to establish the manufacture of long cloth at Calicut Town.[1] The pieces were 72 cubits long,

1. *Journey from Madras and C.*, Buchanan, Vol. II, p. 468.

and the prices given to weavers were 18 S.6 3|4 d. to 16 S.4 1|2 d. the piece. There were 344 weavers, brought from Travancore and Cochin, and they worked 237 looms, and produced 468 pieces of cloth monthly.

Handloom industry in this District is worked partly on cottage industry basis and partly on factory basis. The main places of concentration are the following:

Name of Taluk.	*Name of Centre.*
Tirur	Tanur,
Kozhikode	Kanancherry
Quilandi	Balusseri
	Pantalayini
	Perambra
	Koothali
Badagara	Badagara
	Chombal
	Edacherri
	Iringal
	Maniyur.

The weavers can be classified into four categories according to the system and method adopted by them in the production and marketing of handloom goods, (a) Individual weavers owning looms who produce as well as market the finished goods, (b) Weavers employed under master weavers dependent on the latter in the matter of securing work and wages, (c) Weavers employed in handloom factories and (d) Weavers who are members of Weavers' Co-operative Societies. The finished yarn is advanced by the societies to weavers who turn them into finished goods. These are then marketed by the societies and the members paid wages for their work.

Both pit looms and frame looms are used by the weavers. Some of the factories are having jacquard looms for weaving special designs. The number of pit looms in the District comes to about 3,500. Of the 15,000 looms about 4,000 come under the factory fold. There are about 22 weaving factories. The yarn used for weaving purposes is mostly of lower counts ranging from 10s to 40s. Coloured yarn is also used for producing coloured goods. For producing coloured yarn some of the weaving establishments have set up dye houses of their own. The chief varieties of cloth produced are the

following: grey goods like dhothies, towels, etc. shirtings, lungies and furnishing fabrics. The yarn is at first soaked in water or bleached or dyed according to requirements. Then it is wound on bobbins and from these bobbins warps of the required length are produced with the aid of warping frames. These warps are united and joined on the looms and then woven by using the required yarn for the weft. The finished goods are marketed both inside and outside the State. A portion of it is also exported to foreign countries. The Kerala Handloom Weavers' Co-operative Society which is the regional apex society has established a net-work of retail sales depots in the Districts of Kozhikode, Palghat and Cannanore for marketing the finished goods. A weaver in the factory earns Rs. 50 to 60 per month, and those outside the factories and using frame looms earn about Rs. 45 per month. Those weavers who use pit looms earn an average monthly wage of Rs. 25 to 30. Women and children are engaged in the pirn and bobbin winding process; and their wage varies from Rs. 20 to 25 per month. A worker employed in the Co-operative Society earns Rs. 60 per month (frame looms) and Rs. 35 to 40 (pit looms).

There are about 5,000 looms in the co-operative sector. The following statement gives the particulars of the Co-operative Societies in this industry in 1961.

No. of Societies	30
Total membership	4,580
Share capital	Rs. 3,08,200
Working capital	Rs. 16,06,329
Reserve fund and other reserves	Rs. 5,08,752
Average production (in value)	Rs. 2,65,300

A portion of the profit earned by the societies on business is being distributed to members by way of bonus and dividend. The common good fund raised from out of net profit is also utilised for purposes of education of children of weavers and other common needs. A scheme for providing houseless weavers with houses is also being implemented at Balusseri. It not only gives accommodation for the weavers and their looms but also helps the weavers to live in healthy surroundings. It is desirable to add a few words about Industrial Weavers' Co-operative Societies working in this District and Malabar in general. This is a special scheme

sponsored by the Government of India to convert closed down Handloom Factories into Industrial Co-operatives by the transfer of ownership of factories from the employer to the employees. The Taj Textiles Industrial Co-operative Society produces several varieties of Handloom fabrics which are exported to America, Singapore, etc through the Handloom Fabrics Marketing Society, Bombay. They produce beautiful jacquard varieties of furnishings, bed sheets, etc.

Metal Industry

In Quilandi Town and neighbouring villages the metal industry has made notable progress. A large variety of goods including domestic utensils and ornametal wares are made of metal. The industry is mainly in the hands of capitalists who control both production and marketing. Very few artisans carry on the industry with their own funds or market their goods independently because the articles produced are costly. The raw materials used in this industry consist of brass, copper, tin, lead, aluminium and iron which are imported from outside. Articles of ornamental kind and of high artistic beauty such as lamp stands, flower vases, ash-trays, cups and finger bowls are made in Quilandi. Moreover, the Malabar blacksmiths are famous for making articles of cutlery. The Quilandi knives are famous and are largely used in other Districts too. The metal industry in Quilandi has also been organised on a co-operative basis.

Khadi and Village Industries

The development of the Khadi and Village Industries in the District is in the hands of the Kerala Khadi and Village Industries Board. Before the formation of the Board, the development of Khadi industry was undertaken by the *Akhila Bharatha Sarvaseva Sangh*. Even today there are 15 institutions run by the latter. The organisation, maintenance and development of ambar *parisramalayas*, khadi societies, pottery industry, jaggery, bee-keeping, village oil industry, etc. are some of the important industrial activities performed by the Khadi and Village Industries Board. The Board renders financial assistance by way of loans and grants. There are about 50 societies working under the auspices of the Board and engaged in such different village industries as khadi weaving, pottery, oil crushing, jaggery making, etc. Since the Board has taken up the activities of khadi and village industries 696 charkhas have been distributed in this District

providing full time employment to 250 persons. According to the programme adopted by the Board during the initial period 28 ambar *parisramalayas* have been conducted giving training in spinning to 800 persons. Twelve Khadi Co-operative Societies have also been registered in this District. Till 1961 the Board had given financial aid to 35 Societies and institutions engaged in Village Oil Industry, to four in village pottery industry and to one bone crushing unit. The number of persons engaged in the various village industries in 1961 are given below:

	Industry.		*Persons engaged.*
1.	Khadi	..	1,250
2.	Village Oil	..	250
3.	Handpounding of paddy	..	26
4.	Village pottery	..	55
5.	Village leather	..	6
6.	Non-edible oil soap	..	15
7.	Palm-Gur	..	3,254
	Total	..	4,856

Inaustrial Estates

An Industrial Estate was established at Edakkad in 1960. An area of 5 acres 154 2|3 sq. yards was acquired for the purpose. The site is at West Hill about 4 furlongs from Calicut-Cannanore Road and very near to the West Hill Railway Station. The construction of two 'B' Type Blocks and 9 'C' Type Blocks consisting of two units in each Block has been completed and they have been allotted to 14 industrialists for starting different industries such as Stainless Steel, Structural Fabrication, Tin industry, Mosaic Tiles, Laboratory Instruments, Wooden Toys, Radio Manufacturing, Toy Rubber Balloons, Rubber Dolls, Tin containers, Drums, etc. There is a proposal for acquiring an additional area of 7.67 acres for the expansion of the Estate during the year 1962-63. It has also been proposed to establish a developmental plot adjacent to the Estate and an area of 12.33 acres of land is to be acquired for the purpose.

Another Industrial Estate is to be set up at Manjeri during the Third Five Year Plan period.

Industrial Potential and Plans for Future Development

Prospects of the industrial development of the Kozhikode District are bright. The Gwalior Rayons are setting up a silk manufacturing company at Mavur on the banks of the Chaliyar river about 14 miles away from Calicut. They propose to manufacture rayon grade pulp from Bamboo and the work is in progress. The initial production capacity of the firm is 150 tons per day. The raw materials required for the industry are available in plenty in the nearby forests. The Kerala Government have permitted the Gwalior Rayons to conduct a survey of the Bamboo resources in the Malabar forests in order that the Company might assure itself of the availability of Bamboo for its expansion programme. The site of the location of the factory is an ideal one where transport, power and water facilities are easily available.

An important steel concern has also sprung up in the District recently. Messrs. Consolidated Industrial Corporation, Marikkar Buildings, Trivandrum have been issued license for starting a Steel Re-rolling Mill and they have acquired the necessary site at Cheruvannur on the right side of the Calicut-Madras Road about 5 miles away from Calicut. The Plant will be named West India Steel Company (P) Ltd.

It is also likely that one of the spinning mills for which the Kerala Government have recommended for license will be established at Tanur in Kozhikode District in the private sector.

The Report of the All India Manufacturers' Organisation Industrial Delegation which visited Kerala at the invitation of the State Government in January 1962 throws some light on the industrial potential and plans for future development of the District. The delegation has suggested that a factory for making rubberised coconut fibres may be set up at Calicut involving an outlay of Rs. 5 to 10 lakhs. It has also suggested the possibility of establishing a medium size factory for manufacturing wrapping paper and kraft paper out of arecanut waste in the Calicut area in the private sector. Wood seasoning and wood joinery plants have also been recommended for establishment in the area. The waste products of the present forest or wood based industries such as chips, slivers, etc., of the large number of saw mills and plywood factories in the District can be advantageously utilised in setting up a few chip board factories of 10 to 15 tons per day at Calicut and

a few other places. There are also possibilities of establishing factories for the production of fish meal at Calicut. Fish oil can be used for paints, softening hides, softening soaps, tempering steel, batching jute and preparing edible fats and hence there is considerable scope for a few large scale factories that could be set up based on fish and fish oil. The A.I.M.O. Delegation has also commended to the State Government the "Rural Industrialisation Scheme" prepared by Dr. M. Visvesvarayya, the Founder-President of the A.I.M.O. and sponsored by the Organisation. The scheme envisages grouping of 10 to 15 villages in a District. The Report of the Delegation says "In any development scheme emphasis should be made on regional development rather than on mere industries. The development of industries in Kerala State region-wise or preferably district-wise will be very beneficial. In this connection we would recommend the scheme of Dr. M. Visvesvarayya for "District Industrialisation" for setting up organisations for that purpose is a case for consideration of the Kerala Government. Endeavours should also be made to further expand and consolidate the existing industries by mechanisation and adopting modern methods of production".[1]

LABOUR ORGANISATIONS

Industrial labour in the Kozhikode District is well organised. There are 151 registered trade unions with a total membership of 22,929. These Unions are affiliated to the various all India bodies like the Indian National Trade Union Congress, the All India Trade Union Congress and Hind

1 Dr. Visvesvarayya's scheme envisages the setting up of District Councils for each District to promote the cause of industrialisation. The District Council "should take necessary steps to prevail upon the public to establish new industries wherever there may be scope, to induce individual citizens to start smaller units of work suited to their capacity and so to create, from month o month, conditions favourable for the growth of products, either for local consumption or for sale."

Mazdoor Sabha. An industry-wise statement of Trade Unions in the District as on April, 1, 1961 is given below:

INDUSTRY-WISE STATEMENT OF TRADE UNIONS AS ON APRIL, 1, 1961

Sl. No.	Industry.	No. of Unions.	Membership.
1.	Agriculture	1	51
2.	Artisans	2	
3.	Banking & Insurance	2	186
4.	Beedi Works	7	657
5.	Cashew Industry	4	1,400
6.	Ceramic Works	1	33
7.	Coir Industry	4	206
8.	Engineering Work	4	206
9.	Factory Work	5	265
10.	Ferry Service	1	149
11.	Fishing	3	
12.	Head Load	4	84
13.	Hotel Work	2	479
14.	Matches	1	50
15.	Medicine & Public Health	6	555
16.	Mineral Oil	1	24
17.	Miscellaneous	21	904
18.	Motor & Mechanical	1	218
19.	Municipal Service	3	658
20.	Oil Milling & Soap	2	116
21.	Picture House	1	35
22.	Plantation	14	5,901
23.	Plywood & Wood Works	2	639
24.	Port & Stevedoring	5	820
25.	Printing	3	309
26.	Public Works & Electricity	2	233
27.	Railways	1	69
28.	Rice Milling	1	134
29.	Shops & Establishments	9	1,841
30.	Textile	18	1,775
31.	Tile Works & Potteries	12	3,836
32.	Toddy Tapping	1	141
33.	Transport	3	884
34.	Services	4	72
	Total	151	22,929

The earliest attempt to develop trade unionism in the District was made in the Tile Industry. From here the movement gradually spread to other industries also. However, according to the information supplied by the Registrar of Trade Unions, the West Coast Electric Workers' Union, Chalapuram is the oldest Trade Union registered in this area. The total membership of this Union at the time of its registration in 1945 was 101. The Union is still on the register.

There have been trade unions in this District which have been short lived. The main causes of the disappearance of these unions were the workers' lack of confidence in the Union leaders, internal quarrels among the members of the unions, inter-union rivalry, decay of the trades themselves, and political influences. Subscriptions paid by the workers and periodic donations constitute the chief source of income of the trade unions while the conduct of labour disputes at various stages from conciliation to appeals before the High Court and the Supreme Court as well as the expenses of trade union officials and office correspondence form the chief items of expenditure.

The following labour laws are administered in this District for regulating industrial relations and providing amenities to labourers. (1) The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, (2) The Factories Act, 1948, (3) Industrial Employment (standing orders) Act, 1946, (4) The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, (5) The Madras Shops and Establishment Act, 1947, (6) The Payment of Wages Act, 1936, (7) Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, (8) The Minimum Wages Act, 1948, (9) The Employees Provident Fund Act, 1952, (10) The Employees State Insurance Act, 1948, (11) The Plantation Labour Act, 1951, (12) The Maternity Benefit Act, 1957 and (13) The Employment of Children Act, 1938.

Voluntary direct negotiations, conciliation, arbitration and adjudication are the methods resorted to in settling disputes between employers and employees. In this District there are also Industrial Relations Committees for Coir Industry, Timber Industry, Plantations and Textiles. These Committees deal with the common problems facing the employers and employees in the respective industries and try to arrive at satisfactory settlement. In addition, there are 47 Works Committees in all functioning in the various industries of the District. They are set up in every industrial establishment employing 100 or

more workers, and both employers and employees are provided with equal representation on them. The Works Committees discuss disputes between managements and workers and attempt to settle them amicably. Moreover, they also discuss such items as hospital facilities, medical aid, sanitary arrangements, water supply, functioning of the canteens, etc. The following table gives the number of industrial disputes, strikes, lock-outs, etc. in the District for the period 1956-61.[1]

Statement of Industrial Disputes, Strikes, Lock-outs, etc. in the District for the period 1956-61

Year	*No. of Strikes/ lock-out*		*Mandays lost*	*No. of disputes that arose*	*No. of disputes settled*
1956-57	Strikes	7	10,372	409	356
1957-58	do.	19	26,082	628	466
1958-59	do.	32	47,767	726	557
1959-60	do.	10	5,268	767	660
	Lock-outs	2	5,038		
1960-61	Strikes	11	22,784	646	544
	Lock-outs	1	1,216		

Welfare of Industrial Labour.

The general condition of industrial labour can be said to be satisfactory. Minimum wages have been fixed for certain industries under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act. The conditions of work, hours of work, etc. are governed by the Factory Act, 1948, the Plantation Labour Act, 1951 and the Madras Shops and Establishments Act, 1947. As regards the social security enactments enforced in this District attention is invited to the section on Labour Welfare in Chapter XVII where a succinct account of the functioning of social security measures such as Employees State Insurance, Employees Provident Fund, etc. is given.

1. Source: Registrar of Trade Unions, Trivandrum.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

BANKING AND FINANCE

History of Indigenous Banking in the District

Banking has been an important economic activity in the District. The *Malabar District Census Handbook* (1951) shows that there were 870 persons engaged in money lending, banking, and other financial business in Calicut city alone. Of these 71 were employers, 455 employees, and 344 independent workers.

The earliest form of indigenous banking prevalent in the District was money lending. Large loans were given by professional money lenders or by people wealthy enough to do so. However, any one with surplus money advanced the small loans needed by the poorer people for special expenses, or in times of adversity. Many of these small lenders were Nairs and Brahmins. A few Mappilas also advanced loans on interest, though their religion officially forbade this.

Another indigenous credit institution prevalent in the District is the *kuri* or *chitti*. It is perhaps the most popular institution in this part providing credit facilities for a variety of activities such as agriculture, marketing, small scale industries, etc. It is also popular as an institution for investment of savings especially with the joint stock companies in the State, which resort to it for mobilising fluid capital. The antiquity of the institution is testified to by Mr. Logan in his '*Manual of the Malabar District*' and by Mr. Sim Cox in his '*Primitive Civilisations*'. In early days, when the idea of modern banking transactions had not permeated into the minds of the people, the chit funds formed an important source of credit and investment facilities. A quantitative study of the volume of money transactions through the *Chitties* does not appear to have been made in a systematic manner in early times. Logan observes in his *Manual* "Another curious custom has come down from ancient times and is still flourishing though the mutual confidence on which it relies for its proper

effects shows signs of breaking down and is cited as a degeneracy of Malayali manners. Any one desirous of raising a considerable sum of money for some temporary purpose invites his friends to join him in what is called a *kuri* or lottery: chance enters very little, however, into the arrangement, and it would be a better term to call the members a mutual loan society. The organiser of the *kuri* gets a certain number of his friends to subscribe a certain amount of money, or of rice husked or unhusked, as the case may be. The friends bring their contributions to his house, where they are hospitably entertained and by lot the person is selected to whom similar contributions from all present, including the organizer of the *kuri*, are to be made at a certain date then and there fixed. This individual in turn hospitably entertains his friends when they come with their contributions. A third person is then selected, and the same thing comes off at his house. And so it goes on, until every one of the original members or his heir has in turn reaped the benefits of the contributions of his friends. The arrangement is of obvious benefit in several ways to those concerned".[1]

General credit facilities available in the District

The classification of credit agencies adopted by the All India Rural Credit Survey 1951 (conducted by the Reserve Bank of India) holds good with regard to the general credit facilities available in the District. They are of nine categories viz. Government, Co-operatives, relatives, landlords, agriculturists, money lenders, professional money lenders, traders and commission agents, commercial banks, and others.

Indebtedness rural and urban and the extent to which usury is prevalent.

The causes of indebtedness are many. The more important are the loss of economic equilibrium caused by the decay or destruction of several cottage industries, the inadequate development of large scale industries, a more rapid increase of the population dependent on agriculture than of the area available for cultivation, the increase of uneconomic holdings owing to their sub-division and fragmentation, low investment on agriculture, out-of-date methods of production and the consequent low production from land per head of population and per acre, the inefficient marketing of produce, the existence of social habits baneful to progress, etc.

1 *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, Logan, p. 173.

The All India Rural Credit Survey made a comprehensive study of the rural credit facilities in the erstwhile Malabar District. It would not be out of place to point out here the observations of the survey. The survey revealed that the Malabar District had a relatively high percentage of cash crops, as much as 53% of the cultivated area being under cash crops. Here 57% of the total credit to cultivators was supplied by trading interests and about 93% of the sale transactions of the cultivators was with traders. It was found in the course of the survey that 37% of the village money lenders were also traders. In the majority of these sale transactions, the produce was taken delivery of by the trader in the village itself. In 98% of the cases, the price was settled at delivery and in the remaining instances the price was settled before the delivery of the produce. Borrowing from Government and Co-operatives accounted for slightly less than 1% of the total borrowings. The average borrowings per cultivator amounted to Rs. 406 and the debt outstanding at the end of the year was as high as Rs. 625.

According to reports furnished by the Tahsildars of Quilandi and Tirur the extent of rural and urban indebtedness in these two Taluks has been estimated at Rs. 12½ lakhs and Rs 20 lakhs respectively. In his dissenting minute appended to the Report of the *Malabar Tenancy Committee*, 1940 Sri E. M. S. Namboodiripad, a former Chief Minister of Kerala, observes thus on the volume of indebtedness in the erstwhile Malabar District. "Applying the tests used by the Provincial Banking Committee Report (Debt per head of population, Debt per acre of land and Debt per rupee of assessment) the total indebtedness of the Malabar peasant would roughly come to Rs. 15 crores. Allowing Rs. 4 crores for the indebtedness of the non-cultivating agricultural classes, and Rs. 4 crores for amounts which could be scaled down under moderate provisions, the peasantry would still have to pay Rs. 7 crores as its debt".

Private money lending in this District is not an hereditary calling. The rate of interest charged varies from 6% to 12%, though the Madras Agriculturist Relief Act (1938) stipulated a maximum interest rate of 5½%. Recently the Kerala Government passed two legislative measures, namely, the Kerala Agriculturists Debt Relief Act. 1958 and the Kerala Money Lender's Act. 1958. The object of the former is to provide

for some relief to indebted agriculturists in the State. The object of the latter is to provide for the regulation and control of the business of money lenders. Under the Act, a person shall not carry on business as a money lender without a license obtained under the Act. A money lender advancing smaller amount or securing higher interest than that specified in the accounts is liable to punishment under the Act.

The Rural Credit Survey revealed that the commercial banks in the Malabar District formed the major credit agency for the urban money lenders. 78% of the urban money lenders relied on banks for their financial requirements.

JOINT STOCK BANKS

The Nedungadi Bank, the oldest of the Scheduled banks operating in the State, is registered in this District. Founded in 1899 by T. M. Appu Nedungadi with headquarters at Calicut, it is one of the five banking institutions set up in India during the last decade of the 19th century.[1] Having been included in the original second schedule to the Reserve Bank of India Act 1934, it acquired the status of a Scheduled Bank on 5th July, 1935 i.e. the date of the commencement of the Reserve Bank of India Act. In 1958 it attained the status of a 'C' class bank as the working capital exceeded one crore of rupees. It has besides a registered office at Calicut, branch offices at Badagara (1915), Tirur (1917), Calicut (1913) and Manjeri (1957) in the District. In addition to the Nedungadi Bank there are two other banks which have their registered offices in the District. They are the Chalapuram Bank and the Kothamangalam Namboothiri Bank, Quilandi. The particulars such as the paid-up share capital, reserves, total deposits etc. of these banks are given in the following table.

1. Of the five banks established in the last decade of the 19th century the Oudh Commercial Bank and the Bank of Ayodhya are no longer functioning while the third one viz., the Allahabad Bank was subsequently affiliated with the Chartered Bank. The remaining two banks which trace their origin to the 19th century and still function in India as flourishing concerns are the Punjab National Bank and the Nedungadi Bank.

Statement showing the number of Banks registered as on 31st December, 1960 in the District

No.	*Name of bank & date of incorporation*	*Paid-up capital.**	*Reserves**	*Total deposits.**	*No. of offices.*	*Divident declared.*	*Remarks*
1.	Nedungadi Bank, Kozhikode (29th May, 1913)	7,90	2,18	1,37,49	15	4%	Class A Indian Scheduled Bank
2.	Chalapuram Bank, Kozhikode (27th July, 1906)	3,02	93	24,68	8	..	Class B Non-Scheduled Bank having paid-up capital and Reserves between Rs. 1 lakh and Rs. 5 lakhs
1.	Kothamangalam Namboothiri Bank, Quilandi. (29th July, 1929)	45	53	1,49	1	2.50%	Non-Scheduled Bank having paid-up capital & Reserves between Rs. 50,000 & Rs. 1 lakh.

(*) Rs. in thousands.

There are three banks each functioning at the Taluk headquarters of Badagara in the north and Tirur in the south. In between there are banks at Calicut, Feroke, Kalpetta, Kondotti, Malappuram, Manjeri, Nilambur and Quilandi. Of all places in the District, Calicut has the maximum number of banks. The following is the list of banks functioning in the city in 1960.

1.	Bank of India	(B)
2.	Bank of Madura	(B)
3.	Calicut Co-operative Urban Bank	(H.O.)
4.	Canara Bank	(B)
5.	Canara Banking Corporation	(B)
6.	Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate	(B)
7.	Central Bank of India	(B)
8.	Chalapuram Bank -2	(R.O.) & (B)
9.	Chaldean Syrian Bank	(B)
10.	Chartered Bank	(S.B.)
11.	Indian Bank	(B)
12.	Indian Insurance and Banking Corporation	(B)
13.	Indian Overseas Bank	(B)
14.	Malabar District Co-operative Bank-2	(H.O.) & (B)
15.	Nedungadi Bank-2	(R.O.) & (B)
16.	South Indian Bank	(B)

17.	State Bank of India	(B)
18.	State Bank of Travancore	(B)
19.	Travancore Forward Bank	(B)
20.	Union Bank of India	(B)

B—Branch
R.O.—Registered Office
H.O.—Head Office
S.B.—Sub-Branch

Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks

Co-operative Credit Societies were first organised in the erstwhile Malabar District early in this century under the provisions of the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904. According to information obtained from available records the Valancherri Rural Credit Society No. 784 registered on 1st February, 1912 seems to have been the oldest society organised in the District. Its authorised capital as per its registered bye-laws was Rs. 2,000, made up of 1,000 shares of Rs. 2 each. In the first year of its working, there were 47 members who held 100 shares for Rs. 200. On 30th June, 1912, the Society held Rs. 1,100 as fixed deposit and Rs. 11 as savings deposit of its members. It had also issued loans amounting to Rs. 1,324. The position of this society in 1959 can be understood from the following particulars.

1.	Number of members as on 11th June, 1959	263
2.	Paid-up share capital	Rs. 4,667
3.	Loans issued to members	Rs. 31,773
4.	Investments	Rs. 10,360
5.	Reserve Fund	Rs. 9,056
6.	Deposits from members	Rs. 1,472
7.	Loan from Malabar Co-operative Central Bank	Rs. 19,098

When Co-operation was made a State subject the Madras Co-operative Societies Act VI of 1932 was enacted with a view to giving further impetus to the Co-operative movement. The majority of the societies now functioning in the District are those registered under this Act. In the period following the passing of this Act there was an appreciable increase in the number of Co-operative Credit Societies, their membership, and loan transactions. In 1946 several Co-operative Societies consisting of producers and consumers were formed for procurement and distribution of foodgrains. With derationing and lifting of controls most of these Societies which

had built up large reserves and capital were converted into Rural Construction Societies and Mortgage Banks, etc. Large sized Credit Societies and Regional Banks were also formed by amalgamation of existing Societies during the Second Five Year Plan period.

At the end of 1957-58 the District had 1 Co-operative Central Bank, 25 Co-operative Rural Banks, and 29 Co-operative Urban Banks. In addition to attending to regular banking business, the Central Bank issued loans to affiliated Societies, and the Rural Banks and Urban Banks to their members. The Co-operative Central Bank had 1,022 Co-operative Societies and 111 individuals as members with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 17,52,295 at the close of 1957-58. Deposits from members and others amounted to Rs. 63,45,075. Loans issued to Societies amounted to Rs. 1,24,22,899 and the balance outstanding under cash credit to Societies was Rs. 11,86,223. The 29 Rural Banks with a membership of 41,628 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 7,68,933 issued short term loans and medium term loans amounting to Rs. 3,47,244. They had a reserve fund of Rs. 10,56,075 and held deposits from members and others amounting to Rs. 6,35,743. The Urban Banks had a total membership of 1,26,545 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 7,74,297. They issued loans amounting to Rs. 76,88,740 and held deposits amounting to Rs. 33,17,460. Besides the above Societies, there were 192 Agricultural Credit Societies of the unlimited liability type with a membership of 24,813 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 3,49,874. These Societies issued loans for agricultural and other purposes. One Land Mortgage Bank in the District had 1,352 members with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 27,434 and it issued loans amounting to Rs. 2,98,453.

INSURANCE

No insurance company has been registered in the District. But prior to the nationalisation of Life Insurance in September, 1956 the Branch Offices of several Insurance Companies had been functioning here. The Kozhikode District now forms part of the Coimbatore Division of the Life Insurance Corporation of India. The Corporation has a Branch Office at Calicut and a Sub-Office at Manjeri.[1] The former has jurisdiction over

1 Till the opening of the Sub-Office at Manjeri on May, 1, 1961 the Branch Office at Calicut was attending to the Life Insurance business in Ernad and Tirur Taluks also.

the Taluks of Kozhikode, Quilandi and South Wynad, while the latter has jurisdiction over the Taluks of Ernad and Tirur. The Badagara Taluk comes under the jurisdiction of the Sub-Office at Tellicherry opened on July 1, 1960. There has been a steady expansion of Life Insurance business in the District since nationalisation. In December, 1959 there were 617 Agents of the Life Insurance Corporation in the District. The total number of Life Insurance Policies issued during each of the years since incorporation and the total sums assured under them are given below:

Year	*Number of policies issued.*	*Sum assured Rs.*
* 1956	506	16,66,300
1957	5,671	1,20,92,300
1958	8,744	1,93,25,850
1959	9,868	2,37,07,500
1960	9,508	2,48,79,700

* From 1st September, 1956 to 31st December, 1956.

A monthly statement of business proposed and completed during 1956-59 is given in Appendix I.

National Savings Scheme

The District has made its contribution to the success of the National Savings and Prize Bonds Schemes. The particulars regarding the collections in National Savings Securities during the period 1958-60 are given below:

	Year.	*Gross* Rs.	*Net.* Rs.
National Plan Savings Certificates	1958-59	17,72,580	NA
	1959-60	15,42,595	9,46,074
Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates	1958-59	1,40,400	NA
	1959-60	1,54,800	1,54,800

Under the Prize Bonds Scheme which was inaugurated on 1st April, 1960, a total sum of Rs. 2,06,040 was collected in the District up to the end of May, 1960. It may be noted that this amount was realised out of the sale of 19,568 Prize Bonds of Rs. 5 denomination and 1,802 Prize Bonds of Rs. 100 denomination[1].

1. Regarding the Prize-bond scheme it may be noted that instead of paying interest, prizes are distributed among bond holders chosen by lot.

AID TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Kerala Financial Corporation

The Kerala Financial Corporation plays an important part in the industrial development of the State. A Sub-Office of the Corporation started functioning at Calicut from February, 18, 1960. It functions as a branch office for receipt of applications for loan and dissemination of information to parties about the activities of the Corporation. It also conducts primary investigation on applications for loans received from the Malabar area and allied matters. Since the formation of Kerala State the Corporation has advanced loans totalling Rs. 7,66,000 for industries in the Kozhikode District. The details are given below:

Particulars of loans granted by the Kerala Financial Corporation

Particulars.	*Tea industry.*	*Tile and Clay works.*
Number of cases involved	1	1
Year of Grant(Sanction)	23rd August, 1957	3rd February, 1961
Amount of loan	Rs. 2,66,000	Rs. 5,00,000
Purpose	For development, working capital and clearing off liabilities.	For development and clearing off liabilities.
Terms and conditions	The loan carries interest at 6½ per cent subject to a rebate of 1/2 per cent for prompt repayments which are to be effected in 30 half yearly equated instalments.	The loan carries interest at 7 per cent for prompt repayments which are to be effected in 20 half-yearly equated instalments. 1/2 per cent rebate is allowed for prompt repayment.

No application for loans from this District had to be rejected by the Corporation.

Before the formation of Kerala State the credit needs of the industries in the District and of other parts of the erstwhile Malabar area were met by the Madras Industrial Investment Corporation, Limited, Madras. Out of a total sum of

Rs. 29 lakhs disbursed by the Investment Corporation in the erstwhile Malabar area, only one loan totalling to Rs. 7,50,000 benefited this Distroct. This loan was granted to a concern engaged in the distribution of electricity.

Government Loans

Loans are given by the Government to industrialists under the State Aid to Industries Act as well as under the Small Scale Industries Aid Scheme. The loans under the former bear simple interest at 5½ per cent and are repayable in yearly or half-yearly instalments within a period of 20 years while those under the latter bear simple interest of 3½ per cent and are repayable in yearly or half-yearly instalments within a period of 11 years. Loans under both schemes are granted for construction of factory buildings, the purchase of machinery towards working capital etc. The details of the loans granted under both schemes in the Kozhikode District up to March 31, 1961 are given below:

Loans under the State Aid to Industries Act.

Name of industry	*Amount granted* Rs.
Wood industry	20,750
Rubber products	18,000
Printing industry	30,200
Iron articles	2,000
Medicines	6,330
Automobile industry	20,900
Radio components	1,26,500
Starch and sago	5,000
Beedi industry	7,000
Total	2,36,680

Loans under Small Scale Industries Aid Scheme.

Name of industry	*Amount granted* Rs.
Saw mill industry	15,000
Slate frame manufacturing	25,000
Umbrella sticks	20,000
Printing	75,000
Tiles	31,000
Total	1,66,000

Aid to Khadi and Village Industries

The Kerala Khadi and Village Industries Board disbursed by way of grants and loans a sum of Rs. 2,44,968.89 till the end of 31st December, 1959 to 47 institutions in the District, mostly co-operative societies engaged in various village industries such as Khadi spinning, leather, oil crushing, hand pounding of paddy, non-edible oil soap, village pottery etc.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Imports and Exports

The Kozhikode District occupies a prominent place in the commercial map of Kerala. It has a very large share in the import and export trade of the State. The chief imports into the District are copra, raw cashew nut, beedi leaves, building materials, and chemicals, cotton piecegoods, drugs, fruits and vegetables, grains like rice, wheat, etc., hardware, manures, metals, oils, oil-cakes, paints, paper and pasteboards, seeds, sugar and tobacco. The most important exports are bricks and tiles, coconuts, coir yarn, coir ropes, ginger, rosewood, other timber, palmyrah fibre, tamarind, fish oil, coconut oil, pepper, coir fibre, manioc meal, bamboos, raw rubber, tea, coffee, cashew kernels and cardamom.

The Calicut port handles exports and imports of all kinds. Detailed statistical information is available in regard to the volume and value of the major exports and imports handled at this port. The table at Appendix II gives the total value of exports and imports at Calicut Customs House for each of the years from 1914 to 1960. The table at Appendix III gives the value of foreign trade carried through Calicut port for each of the years from 1941 to 1960. The table at Appendix IV gives the value of coasting trade carried through Calicut port for each of the years during the same period. The table at Appendix V gives detailed information in regard to the volume and value of coast-wise and foreign imports and exports in regard to each import and export item handled at the Calicut port during the period from 1st July, 1959 to 30th June, 1960. Separate statistics relating to imports and exports from the port to Indian as well as foreign ports carried through steamers, and country crafts respectively can also be had from the same table. In point of value the most important imports are cotton piece goods and raw cotton, grains, oil cakes, seeds, tobacco,

paints and colours, sugar, etc., while the most important exports are bricks and tiles, coconuts, ginger, pepper, wood and coir yarn.

In addition to the port of Calicut the port at Badagara also has its share in the trade of the District. The main commodities handled at this port are coconuts, fish manure, ground nut, oil-cake, salt, cotton seeds, tiles and timber. The trade of this port is purely coastal trade and does not involve any foreign country. The following table gives particulars of the volume and value of trade transactions at Badagara port during the period 1957-60.

Statement showing the volume and value of trade of the port of Badagara during 1957-60.

Year.	Volume Import. (tons)	Volume Export. (tons)	Volume Total (tons)	Value Import. (Rs.)	Value Export. (Rs.)	Value Total. (Rs.)
1957-58.	3,923	18,010	21,933	2,29,222	1,82,48,585	1,84,77,807
1958-59.	3,041	16,773	19,816	91,004	1,82,45,267	1,83,36,271
1959-60.	16,295	2,948	19,243	1,61,609	1,85,18,906	1,86,80,515

Figures of the volume of export—import trade carried on via rail-route in this District during the year 1958-59 are given in the tables given as Appendix VI to this chapter. The tables show that the volume of imports exceeded the volume of exports considerably. While the total volume of inward goods traffic came to 7,638,849 maunds that of outward goods traffic came to 5,647,219 maunds only.

A considerable volume of the trade of the District is carried through its waterways. The table at Appendix VII to this chapter gives the statement of traffic carried by the waterways from each of the principal landing places in the District (Badagara, Payyoli, Calicut and Tirur) to the others. An analysis of the over-all traffic by waterways, road and rail from each of these landing places is given in the table at Appendix VIII, to this chapter. It may be seen that the bulk of the trade in these places is carried on through waterways.

Regulated Markets

Under the provisions of the Madras Commercial Crops Markets Act 1933 which was extended to the erstwhile Malabar District in 1950, three Regulated Markets were established

in the Kozhikode District. They are located at Thalakkadathur and Othukkungal in Tirur Taluk and Perambra in Quilandi Taluk. The crops notified under the Act for the purpose of regulation are (1) coconut and its products and (2) arecanut. At present only raw arecanuts are being transacted in the markets. Prior to the establishment of the Regulated Markets the transactions took place in unregulated shandies and in the private premises of the traders. Malpractices such as illegal deductions and false weighments were in vogue. With the introduction of the Regulated Markets the transactions have come to take place in licensed premises only. The market charges are defined and licensed weighmen are allowed to function in the notified area. It is a feature of the Regulated Markets of the District that only direct transactions take place in them. This is in contrast to the practice prevailing in some parts of North India where the products arriving in the Regulated Markets are marketed through the aid of middlemen or commission agents. The advantages derived from the direct transactions are mainly two. Firstly the seller is present at the time of the sale and is aware of the price offered by the buyer. Secondly there is a reduction in market costs. No fee of any kind is levied from the agriculturist seller at the Regulated Markets in the District. Though there is provision for engaging licensed weighmen the weighments are now done by the Market Committee's staff itself. Cess is collected from the buyers of the produce at the following rates before the produce leaves the notified area.

Coconut	13 nP. per thousand or part thereof.
Arecanut .	33 nP. per quintal or part thereof.
Copra . .	16 nP. per quintal or part thereof.

Temporary storage facilities to both buyers and sellers alone are now provided at the Regulated Markets. All essential amenities such as auction platform, well and drinking water, lighting, urinal, etc., are also provided. Daily prices and arrivals are displayed on the notice board of the Regulated Markets. Weekly arrivals and price trends are published in the local dailies.

As for the organisation for the control of the Regulated Markets, it may be noted that unlike in other States there are no separate Market Committees for each Regulated Market in this District. One Market Committee viz., the Malabar Market Committee alone was constituted under Section IV of the

Madras Commercial Crops Markets Act 1933, and the whole of the revenue District of Malabar was declared as a notified area under the Committee. At present the notified area of the Malabar Market Committee consists of the whole of the erstwhile Malabar District and Kasargod and Hosdurg Taluks. The Committee consists of 12 members of whom 5 are elected from among growers and 4 from among traders, 2 are nominated by the Government and one is an ex-officio member i.e., the District Agricultural Officer, Kozhikode.

Wholesale trade centres

The most important wholesale trade centres in the District are Calicut, Tirur, Manjeri, Badagara, Quilandi and Kalpetta. The chief commodities handled at the centres and the approximate annual turn-over and number of wholesale dealers in respect of each centre are given below:

Statement of Wholesale Trade Centres, Commodities handled etc*

Name of centre	*Commodities dealt with*	*Approximate*	
		Annual turn-over Rs.	*No. of important wholesale dealers*
Kozhikode	Rice, hill produces like pepper, ginger and lemongrass oil, fish, coconut and its products, coir, banana and tapioca	13,45,65,250	110
Tirur	Betel leaves, eggs, tapioca and fish	55,580	25
Manjeri	Banana	23,030	20
Badagara	Coconut and its products and vegetables	1,50,000	30
Quilandi	Coir and coconut and its products	50,000	15
Kalpetta	Hill products, paddy and cattle	4,56,264	23

(*) Source: Agricultural Marketing Office, Trivandrum.

The commodities handled at the trade centres are exported to various places which are either inside or outside the State. Coconut, coir, etc., are exported mainly to Bombay and Calcutta. Spices are mainly sent to U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Ceylon, China, Japan and European countries.

All the trade centres of the District act both as primary and secondary markets. Except rice for which the District depends on Palghat and the neighbouring States of Madras, Andhra Pradesh and Mysore, all the commodities handled at the centres come mainly from the surrounding areas. In most cases, the producers themselves bring the produce to the centres for sale. From them the wholesale merchants, the middlemen, the commission agents or the exporters buy the produce by bargaining or negotiation. Another practice noticed is that the village merchants buy the produce and then sell it in lots to the commission agents or exporters. A third practice is that the agents appointed by the dealers in trade centres collect the produce on the spot from the producers. The collected products are assembled in trade centres, and from there distributed to various other commercial consuming centres.

Market charges for the same commodity vary from centre to centre. This happens mainly because of the failure to enforce the present rules and regulations. The main rates of toll charges are given below:

Sl. No.	*Particulars.*	*No. of units*	*Charges (nP.)*
1.	Head load	1	03
2.	Cart load	1	25
3.	Lorry load	1	75
4.	Cycle load	1	25
5.	Cows, bulls, and buffaloes (below 2 years)	1	12
6.	Sheep and goats	1	12
7.	Poultry	1	03

Besides, in most of the trade centres, the dealers will have to pay to the controlling authority of the market 37 to 75 nP. per stall if they want to occupy the stalls constructed in the market area by the controlling authority.

The rate of commission charged by various commission agents varies considerably. It also varies in regard to the commodities. The standard rate of commission charged for

various non-perishable commodities in various centres ranges from 2% to 6% and for perishable commodities from 5% to 10%. Besides, the producers have to pay for weighing their produce and for cleaning the market. All the charges levied for these minor items are very low.

The storage facilities in most of the centres are not adequate. The godowns owned by the Union Ministry of Food and Agriculture and private parties are not of great use to the producers, while those of the Central and State Warehousing Corporations are of much help to them. There is a branch of the Central Warehousing Corporation at Calicut while the State Warehousing Corporation has opened warehouses at Badagara and Thalakkadathur in the District. The absence of adequate storage facilities creates serious difficulties to the producers in storing their produce.

All the trade centres except a few are connected by both road and rail and hence transportation is not an important problem in the trade. Some of the centres like Kozhikode are connected by water also. This adds to the facilities for transportation.

Retail trade, Fairs and Rural Markets

A sizeable volume of the trade of the District is carried through retail shops, fairs and rural marketing centres. Retail shops may be found in almost all parts of the District. It may be stated in this connection that in some of the important wholesale trade centres there is not much of a distinction between wholesale and retail business. Some of the wholesale traders also indulge in retail trade.

The District is famous for its cattle fairs. The list of the most important of such fairs is given in the table on the next page. In addition there are also fairs held at various centres in connection with the important religious festivals, Hindu as well as Muslim. The Pisharikavu festival in Quilandi Taluk, the Kondotti *Nercha,* Nilambur *Pattu*, Malappuram *Nercha* and Manjeri *Pooram* in Ernad, the Tirunavayi *Arat* and Pudiyangadi *Nercha* in Tirur and Varakkal *Vavu* West Hill (Calicut) and the *Sivaratri* festival in the Sreekandeswaram temple in Kozhiode Taluk may be mentioned in this connection.

Moreover, there are a large number of rural markets located in the different parts of the District. These are controlled by the Panchayats. Most of the markets are held almost daily while some are weekly or bi-weekly markets. Such

List of Cattle Fairs

	Nam of fair	Village or town in which it is held	Day on which it is held	Volume of turn over		Volume of turn over in Rupees		Number of persons attending the fair or mela
				Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	
1.	Pulappally	Pulappally	2nd & 5th of January of every year	200	100	15,000	7,500	1,500
2.	Orakatteri	Eramala	December & January in each year for 7 days	350	250	25,000	10,000	10,000
3.	Keezhur	Quilandi (Payyoli)	December 9th to 15th	6,000	4,000	500,000	400,000	4,000
4	Kinalur	Balusseri	Kumbham 3rd to 7th	3,000	2,500	90,000	75,000	6,000
5.	Kothamangalam	Pantalayini	December 16th to 19th	4,000	3,000	300,000	250,000	4,000

commodities as tapioca, fish, cotton, vegetables, household utensils, coconuts, tobacco, arecanut, betel leaves, etc., are handled at these markets. There are 57 such markets in the District under the control of the Panchayats. Of these 27 are private markets and 30 public markets.

Co-operation in wholesale and retail trade

Co-operation in the field of trade has a history which may be traced back to the early decades of this century. When Co-operative Credit Societies were successfully organised under the provisions of the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904, it was felt that the scope of the movement might be enlarged further so as to cover non-credit activities also. The Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1912 sought to achieve this object. The Madras Co-operative Credit Societies Act VI of 1932 gave a further impetus to the Co-operative movement. Side by side with the increase in the number of Co-operative Credit Societies there was also the development and increase in the number of non-credit societies. Store Societies flourished at the time of control of foodgrains during the Second World War. Societies consisting of producers and consumers (P.C.C. Societies) were formed in 1946 for the procurement and distribution of foodgrains. There were 107 such P.C.C. Societies covering the whole of the erstwhile Malabar District with monopoly in the field of procurement and distribution. This was a new venture in the field of the Co-operative movement and was adjudged a success by all. As has been pointed out earlier with derationing and lifting of controls some of the most affluent of the P.C.C. Societies were converted into Credit Societies and Banks.

There are two District Supply and Marketing Societies in Kozhikode. In 1957-58 their total membership was 8,642 with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 4,69,777. One of the Societies is the sole agent in the Malabar area for the sale of soaps manufactured at the Kerala Soap Institute, Calicut. This Society also undertakes the purchase and sale of rice, sugar, Bengal gram, etc. The other Society is an agent of the India Coffee Board and owns a coffee curing works. It also issued loans to its members on the pledge of agricultural produce and production on mortgage of immovable properties. The loans issued amounted to Rs. 14,77,655 during the year.

There were 14 Store Societies and 27 School Co-operative Stores during the same period. The Store Societies had a membership of 6,200 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 72,470 while the Students' Stores had 1,322 members and a paid-up capital of Rs. 4,134. The Store Societies also undertake contract for supply of dietary articles to institutions such as jails, hospitals, etc. Students' Co-operative Societies are now entrusted with the sale of text books and such Societies are being organised to cover all Secondary Schools in the District.

The District has 1 Milk Supply Union and 3 Milk Supply Societies. The Union had a membership of 1,152 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 31,827 in 1957-58. It purchased 1,087,081 lbs. of milk from Milk Supply Societies and individual members and sold 1,027,117 lbs. of milk to consumers. Bye-products of 61,585 lbs. valued at Rs. 30,996 were also sold. The 3 Milk Supply Societies had a membership of 598 with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 10,940. Of this only one Society is actively working now. It has undertaken contracts for the supply of milk to Government hospitals. The Union also undertakes supply of milk to the jail, mental hospital, etc. at Calicut. There is a scheme for erecting a pasteurisation plant by the Union.

In addition there were also one printing society, one motor transport society run by ex-servicemen, one House Construction Mortgage Bank, 6 Housing Societies and 3 Labour Contract Societies in the District in 1957-58.

Fair Price Shops.

There was rationing of foodgrains in the District during the Second World War and the period following it. But rationing was abolished in 1952 and trade in foodgrains was left completely in the hands of private enterprise. Although the prices of foodgrains came down and there was sufficient stock with the dealers, the trade circles were inclined to profiteer by hoarding and withholding the stock from the open market. This state of affairs created great hardship to the people and therefore in 1957 the Government decided to open fair price shops in the village at the rate of one shop for every 500 families.

A Taluk-wise statement of the number of fair price shops functioning in this District as on 31st March, 1961 is appended below:

Statement of Fair Price Shops

	Name of Taluk	No. of fair price shops (Rice)	No. of fair price shops (sugar)
1.	Kozhikode	155	190
2.	Quilandi	102	124
3.	Badagara	105	98
4.	South Wynad	22	58
5.	Tirur	155	163
6.	Ernad	75	140
	Total	614	773

Some of the fair price shops are run by Co-operative Societies while others are run by private individuals. All the shops are under the immediate control of the Tahsildars and the over-all control of the District Collector. Stocks are distributed to the fair price shops as per the directions of the Collector. Village vigilance committees consisting of the representatives of important voluntary social service organisations and political parties of the District have been constituted to supervise the working of the fair price shops, and to detect irregularities, if any. Moreover, there are also Taluk-wise Advisory Committees to give general advice and guidance.

Merchants' Associations.

There are a large number of Merchants' Associations functioning in the District. The most important of these are the Calicut Chamber of Commerce and the Malabar Chamber of Commerce. The former was established in 1923 and is a member of (1) the Federation of Commonwealth and British Empire Chambers of Commerce, London, (2) the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India, Calcutta, (3) the Madras Chamber of Commerce, Madras and (4) the Indian Standards Institution, New Delhi. It is managed by an Executive Committee consisting of a Chairman, an Honorary Secretary and two other members. The Chamber undertakes the work of measuring and weighing goods, conducts surveys and arbitration, issues certificates of origin, readiness of cargo, late

shipment, business activities and sales transactions, and attends to such matters as authentication of invoices, examination of commercial documents, sampling of goods, issue of export and import statistics and all other works required by the trade. It also supplies port statistics free to all members.

The Malabar Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1929 by a few far-sighted local businessmen who felt the need for an association to express the views of the Indian mercantile community. Associations representing various special interests of the District such as the Malabar Produce Merchants' Association, Calicut, the South Malabar Timber Merchants' Association, Calicut, the Calicut Tobacco Merchants' Union, Calicut, the Malabar Bus Owners' Association, Calicut, the Malabar Umbrella Sticks Manufacturers' Asociation, Calicut, the Kozhikode Timber Exporters' Association, Calicut, the Calicut Piece Goods Merchants' Association, Calicut, the Calicut Foodgrains and Provision Merchants' Association, Calicut and the Malabar Saw Mill Owners' Association, are affiliated to the Malabar Chamber of Commerce, thus investing it with a wide representative character. The Chamber is affiliated to the Southern Indian Chamber of Commerce, Madras. Its primary function is to watch both Central and State Legislation affecting industry, trade and commerce. The views of the Chamber are generally sought by Government on every draft bill, central and State and the observations made by it are given due weight. The Chamber is represented on the Calicut Port Conservancy Board, the Telephone Advisory Committee, the Southern Railways Zonal Railway Users Consultative Committee, the State Food Consultative Committee, the State Sales Tax Advisory Committee, the Southern Railway Station Consultative Committee, the Customs Advisory Committee, Calicut, the Kerala Government Coir Industrial Relations Council, the Employment Exchange Advisory Committee, Board of Communication, Government of Kerala, and State Planning Advisory Board. In 1959 it had 235 members on its rolls. Its affairs are managed by an Executive Committee annually elected by the members by secret ballot.

In addition to the Calicut Chamber of Commerce and the Malabar Chamber of Commerce there are several other Employers' Associations functioning in the District. The names of some of those which are affiliated to the Malabar Chamber of Commerce have already been mentioned. Some of the other

important associations are the Malabar Hotel Owners' Association, Kozhikode, the Tile Manufacturers' Association, Kozhikode, the Manji Owners' Association, Kozhikode, Wynad Planters' Association, Wynad, the Malabar Beedi Manufacturers' Association, Kozhikode, the West Coast Industrialists Association, Calicut and the Malabar Plywood Manufacturers' Asociation, Calicut.

Weights and Measures.

A large number of local and non-standard units in weights and measures have been current in different parts of the District till recently. They varied considerably from Taluk to Taluk and even in different parts of the same Taluk. To add to the confusion the landlords used two kinds of measures, one for receiving rent and the other for paying out (*Patta para* and *Chilavu para*). In view of their bewildering complexity a standard table of weights and measures had been a crying need of the area for long. In 1802 Mac Leod the Principal Collector of Malabar introduced what is called "the MacLeod Seer" which had been since then the only standard grain measure in Malabar. It was in vogue in Palghat, Valluvanad and North Malabar while in Calicut and Ponnani the half seer was used. Liberally heaped as is the practice, its normal contents are 130 tolas of rice. Section 46 of Act XIV of 1930 required that all leases should state the relation between the MacLeod Seer and the measure according to which rent was to be paid. The provision was not generally complied with as there was no sanction behind it.

The metric system of weights and measures was introduced in the District with effect from November, 1, 1958 under the provisions of the Kerala Weights and Measures Enforcement Act, 1958. The facilities for the verification and stamping of the new weights are provided in the office of the District Inspector of Weights and Measures, Kozhikode, who functions under the control of the Controller of Weights and Measures, Kerala State. The reaction of the general and trading public to the introduction of the metric system has been generally satisfactory.

APPENDIX—I

Monthly Statement of business proposed and completed by the Life Insurance Corporation of India during the period 1956-59

Month	1956		1957		1958		1959	
	Proposed Rs.	*Completed* Rs.	*Proposed* Rs.	*Completed* Rs.	*Proposed* Rs.	*Completed* Rs.	*Proposxed* Rs.	*Completed* Rs.
J nu ry	.	.	..	..	11,16,300	4,37,200	13.22,600	2,21,000
Febru ry	.	.	14,55,550	4,85,300	11,81,750	9,40,700	15,55,000	16,07,500
M rch		.	.	..	12,52,800	10,51k700	17,54,850	16,02,350
April	..		17,03,900	15,11,800	11,34,700	9,54,750	16,17,250	14,21,000
M y	.	..	8,65,050	9,99,350	13,85,550	13,52,500	16,86,750	12,47,500
June	..	..	5,55,200	7,16,800	9,50,500	9,37,000	15,37,600	17,51,100
July	..	..	7,39,300	8,91,450	15,88,200	14,66,050	16,40,500	16,06,500
Augus	..	.	10,25,850	7,65,450	18,40,600	16,53,550	19,78,250	16,98,750
Sep ember	..	.	95,44,940	11,45,700	21,43,450	15,40,200	20,40,850	18,41,750
Oc ober	.		10,13,750	15,13,209	21,95,759	22,21,500	22,47,250	15,66,250
November	..	..	12,99,800	10,51,500	19,17,500	18,20,650	24,46,900	21,86,350
December	18,00,400	16,66,300	20,51,300	28,37,800	38,25,100	48,75,500	56,90,700	69,61,450

APPENDIX—II

Total Value of Exports and Imports at Calicut Customs house
(1914-60)

Year	Exports Rs.	Imports Rs.	Total Rs.
1914-15	1,43,44,075	66,96,747	2,10,40,822
1915-16	1,79,41,446	56,74,561	2,36,16,007
1916-17	1,84,30,126	50,81,457	2,35,11,583
1917-18	1,23,31,579	49,42,294	1,72,73,873
1918-19	1,25,09,667	79,14,571	2,94,24,238
1919-20	1,46,30,242	1,38,40,461	3,84,70,703
1920-21	1,13,70,371	1,65,11,927	3,78,82,298
1921-22	1,37,74,617	1,57,97,965	3,95,72,582
1922-23	3,16,73,138	2,23,66,735	5,40,39,873
1923-24	3,63,66,332	2,51,94,944	6,15,61,276
1924-25	4,08,80,523	2,35,00,973	6,43,81,496
1925-26	5,30,25,211	2,23,02,804	7,53,28,015
1926-27	4,13,35,006	2,58,76,016	6,72,11,022
1927-28	5,86,12,860	3,21,41,439	9,07,54,299
1928-29	4,40,14,828	3,87,49,073	8,27,63,901
1929-30	5,02,35,295	4,36,76,918	9,39,12,213
1930-31	4,07,81,050	3,06,76,425	7,14,57,485
1931-32	2,78,10,497	2,80,08,697	5,58,19,194
1932-33	3,28,75,007	2,49,92,537	5,78,67,544
1933-34	3,33,70,473	2,58,52,345	5,92,22,818
1934-35	3,32,87,314	2,83,14,732	6,16,02,046
1935-36	2,98,02,784	2,57,85,916	5,55,88,700
1936-37	3,53,35,675	2,59,83,306	6,13,18,981
1937-38	3,30,85,104	2,72,60,736	6,03,45,840
1938-39	3,09,76,531	2,73,64,660	5,83,41,191
1939-40	2,81,55,466	2,43,47,055	5,24,92,521
1940-41	2,33,08,543	2,35,81,858	4,68,90,401
1941-42	2,92,68,194	1,64,84,913	4,57,53,107
1942-43	3,02,64,865	2,23,67,858	5,26,32,723
1943-44	2,01,91,270	2,68,52,506	4,70,43,776
1944-45	2,35,25,674	1,43,65,627	3,78,91,301
1945-46	2,82,55,640	2,31,48,728	5,14,04,368
1946-47	3,90,07,794	2,46,11,003	6,36,18,797
1947-48	4,51,28,893	2,73,84,386	7,25,13,279
1948-49	5,84,59,788	4,14,22,503	9,98,82,291
1949-50	5,40,87,043	2,43,09,479	7,83,96,522
1950-51	10,02 14,446	3,78,05,154	13,80,19,600
1951-52	5,87,28,975	5,45,59,958	11,32,88,933
1952-53	6,28,28,250	4,27,50,231	10,55,78,481
1953-54	6,59,94,196	4,44,93,858	11,04,88,054
1954-55	5,59,09,390	3,68,89,940	9,27,99,330
1955-56	6,60,58,036	3,73,58,827	10,34,16,863
1956-57	6,03,44,667	4,95,78,712	10,99,23,379
1957-58	4,65,24,737	3,12,21,882	7,77,46,619
1958-59	4,61,97,241	2,53,74,486	7,15,71,727
1959-60	5,67,35,682	2,44,70,907	8,12,06,589

APPENDIX—III

Calicut Port—Value of Foreign Trade (1941-60)

Year	*Exports Foreign* Rs.	*Imports Foreign* Rs.	*Total* Rs.
1941-42	1,71,18,163	37,04,710	2,08,22,873
1942-43	22,05,442	37,825	22,43,267
1943-44	16,91,320	23,351	17,14,671
1944-45	25,64,382	1,52,424	27,16,806
1945-46	55,11,655	1,75,626	58,87,281
1946-47	1,14,34,218	28,24,817	1,42,59,035
1947-48	1,51.46,798	91,69,023	2,43,15,821
1948-49	1,91,21,088	69,51,895	2,60,72,983
1949-50	2,40,01,984	13,09,367	2,53,11,351
1950-51	3,51,57,957	30,27,750	3,81,85,707
1951-52	3,12,50,132	1,70,95,708	4,83,45,840
1952-53	3,[illegible],55,090	89,15,609	4,06,70,659
1953-54	3,91,38,354	31,06,638	4,22,44,992
1954-55	2,91,60,958	61,77,040	3,53,37,998
1955-56	3,84,15,753	1,08,51,460	4,92,6[illegible],213
1956-57	2,99,85,941	2,23,01,346	5,22,87,287
1957-58	2,77,29,640	1,16,83,775	3,94,13,415
1958-59	1,55,29,696	22,97,676	1,78,27,372
1959-60	3,05,25,924	1,53,24,188	4,58,50,112

APPENDIX—IV

Calicut Port—Value of Coasting Trade (1941-60)

Year	Export Coasting	Import Coasting	Total Coasting Trade
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1941-42	1,21,50,031	1,27,80,203	2,49,30,234
1942-43	1,80,59,423	2,23,30,033	5,03,89,456
1943-44	1,84,99,590	2,68,29,155	4,53,29,105
1944-45	2,09,61,292	1,42,13,203	3,51,74,495
1945-46	2,27,43,985	2,27,73,102	4,55,17,087
1946-47	2,75,73,576	2,17,86,186	4,93,59,762
1947-48	2,99,82,095	1,82,15,363	4,81,97,458
1948-49	3,93,38,700	3,44,70,608	7,38,09,308
1949-50	3,00,85,059	2,30,00,112	5,30,85,171
1950-51	6,50,56,489	3,47,77,404	9,98,33,893
1951-52	2,74,78,843	3,74,64,250	6,49,43,093
1952-53	3,10,73,160	3,38,34,622	6,49,07,782
1953-54	2 68,55,842	4,13,87,220	6,82,43,062
1954-55	2,67,48,432	3,07,12,900	5,74,61,332
1955-56	2,76,42,283	2,65,07,367	5,41,49,650
1956-57	2,63,93,276	2,71,06,273	5,34,99,549
1957-58	1,87,95,097	1,95,38,107	3,83,33,204
1958-59	1,06 67,545	1,30,76,810	2,37,44,355
1959-60	2,62,09,758	91,46,719	3,53,56,477

APPENDIX—V

Exports from the Port of Calicut—Coasting Trade from 1st July 1959 to 30th June 1960.

Articles		To Bombay		To other Indian Ports		Total	
		Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty.	Rs.
Beedi leaves	cwt.	2	91	5	729	7	820
Betelnuts	,,	532	92,597	125	30,352	684	1,22,949
Bricks & Tiles	nos.	12,124,910	18,40,649	220,263	36,069	12,345,173	18,76,718
Building materials	val.	.	4,275	..	3,567	..	7,842
Cardamom	cwt.	31	33,419	.	..	31	33,419
Cement	ton.	24	3,030	44	4,229	68	7,259
Chemicals	val.	.	11,270	..	1,772	..	13,042
Chillies	cwt.	5	600	7	751	12	1,351
Coconuts	nos.	28,010,532	63,38,867	2,125	531	28,012,657	63,39,398
Coir yarn	cwt.	15,421	6,30,471	20	850	15,441	6,31,321
Cordage & rope	,,	24,796	11,43,908		6	24,796	11,43,914
Copra	ton	1,095	20,62,644	.	375	1,095	20,63,019
Cotton—Piece goods	yds.	1,000	6,003	..	..	1,000	6,003
Raw	cwt.	1	520	.	.	1	520
wist & Yarn	lbs.	450	250	50	50	500	300
Waste	cwt.	876	35,371	10	214	886	35,585
Other manufrs.	val.	.	4,036	.	4,385	...	8,421
Drugs	,,	.	71,207	.	4,530	..	75,737
Dyeing substances	cwt.	.	..	3	130	3	130
Fish, Dry.	,,	.	.	2	41	2	41
Fodder, bran etc.	ton	3	1,701	1	598	4	2,299
Fruits & Vegetables	val.	..	147	.	787	..	934
Others	ton	8	5,173	.	450	8	5,623
Ghee	cwt.	.	.	2	523	2	523
Ginger	,,	18,397	12,75,573	..	..	18,397	12,75,573
Grains— Pulse Paddy	ton		.	4	1,819	4	1,889
Rice	,,	.	.	366	1,69,225	366	1,69,225
Wheat	,,	.	.	1	908	1	908
Others	,,	.	146	14	6,529	14	6,675

APPENDIX V—(contd)

Articles		To Bombay		To other Indian Ports		Total	
		Qnty.	Rs	Qnty.	Rs	Qnty.	R.
Ground nuts	ton	.		2	736	2	736
Hardware & Cutlery	val.		36,770		2,112	.	38,882
Jute—Gunny bags	nos.	3,450	3,523	50	51	3,500	3,574
Other goods	val.		4,946		1,411	..	8,357
Manures	ton	125	31,351			125	31,351
Matches	gross			50	238	50	238
Mats and mating other than coir & rubber	s. yds	1,459	1,477	100	120	1,559	1,597
Metals and Ores	cwt.	6	111	97	2,193	103	2,304
Molasses & Jaggery	ton		7	10	5,831	10	5,838
Oils—Coconut oil	gls	5,742	60,249	219	2,056	5,961	62,305
Groundnut oil	,,	12	65	44	380	56	445
Mineral oil	,,	220	395	17,544	1,16,671	17,764	1,17,066
Vegetable oil	,,	823	17,094	46	325	869	17,419
Other oils	,,	5,991	32,586	404	1,201	6,395	33,787
Oil cakes	ton	94	47,459	2	873	96	48,332
Paints & Colours	val.	.			7,429	.	7,429
Paper and Paste-Board	cwt.			4	190	4	190
Pepper	,,	10,636	22,60,723	25	2,533	10,661	22,63,256
Provisions & Oilmanstores	,,	36,339	4,50,242	1,655	35,398	37,995	4,85,640
Rubber Raw	lbs	12,05,921	14,09,584	13,903	51,692	1,239,824	14,61,276
Salt	ton			8	663	8	663
Seeds	,,	1	1,377	3	1,425	4	2,802
Soap	cwt	1,698	1,50,261	14	1,409	1,712	2,51,670
Spices	,,	172	10,250	..		172	10,250
Stone & Marble	ton	3	1,059		.	3	2,059
Sugar	,,		.	14	15,497	14	15,497

APPENDIX V—(*contd.*)

Articles		*To Bombay*		*To other Indian Ports*		*Total*	
		Qnty.	*Rs.*	*Qnty.*	*Rs.*	*Qnty.*	*Rs.*
Tallow	cwt.	43	1,838	.		43	1,838
Tea	lbs.	56,335	1,18,633	6,202	12,153	62,537	1,30,786
Textile goods	val.		17,720		541		18,261
Tobacco— Manufactured	lbs.			1,350	3,140	1,350	3,140
Unmanufactured	,,	.	.	2,454	5,460	2,454	5,460
Turmeric	cwt.	24	1,458			24	1,458
Umbrellas	nos.	270	2,514			270	2,514
Wood— Firewood	ton	9	482	.	.	9	482
Sandalwood	cwt.	2	69		..	2	69
Teakwood	c. ton	2,088	4,24,253			2,088	4,24,253
Other kinds	val.	.	56,34,441		46,516	.	56,80,957
Wood manufactured	,,	.	11,264	.	57	..	11,321
Sundries	,,	.	10,63,408		1,61,410	..	12,24,818
				Total value;			2,62,09,758

APPENDIX V (Contd)

Imports into the Port of Calicut—Coasting Trade from 1st July 1959 to 30th June 1960.

Articles		From Bombay		From other Indian Ports		Total	
		Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty.	Rs.
Beedi Leaves	cwt.	525	31,570		.	525	31,570
Betelnuts	val.	.	40		.		40
Chemicals	,,	.	3,03,470				3,03,470
Chillies	cwt.	101	4,060	.	.	101	4,060
Coir manufactured	,,	.	.	80	1,500	80	1,500
Copra	tons		..	8	15,745	8	15,745
Cotton—Piece goods	yds.	30,625	53,200		..	30,625	53,200
Raw	ton	422	11,48,604	.	..	422	11,48,604
Other Mfrs.	val.	..	25,235	.	..	..	25,235
Drugs & Medicines	,,	..	96,145	..	25	..	96,170
Dyeing Substances	cwt.	100	2,030	..	..	100	2,030
Coconuts	nos.	.	..	458,454	22,560	458,454	22,560
Wet Dates	ton	54	34,240	.	..	54	34,240
Other fruits	,,	114	80,742	.	..	114	80,742
Grains & Pulse— Rice	,,	3	3,965	59	33,901	62	37,836
Wheat	,,	152	1,18,931		..	152	1,18,931
Others	,,	3,190	22,88,327	16	12,690	3,206	23,01,017
Gums & Resins	cwt.	135	8,888	40	3,600	175	12,488
Hardware & Cutlery	val.	.	25,850	.	1,300	..	27,150
Hides & Skins	cwt.	..	..	24	485	24	485
Jute— Gunny bags	nos.	2,950	2,466	500	150	3,450	2,616
Gunny cloth	yds.	4,000	2,500	.	..	4,000	2,500

APPENDIX V—(contd.)

Articles		From Bombay		From other Indian ports		Total	
		Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty.	Rs.	Qnty	Rs.
Lac stick	cwt.	2	175	..	..	2	175
Metals & Ores	,,	9,620	2,53,620	.	.	9,620	2,53,620
Molasses & Jaggery	,,	4	200	11	125	15	425
Oils— Mineral oils	gls.	237	675	.	..	237	675
Vegetable oils	,,	842	7,895		..	842	7,895
Other oils	,,	2,687	40,000		..	2,687	40,000
Oil cakes	ton	4,496	13,42,472		..	4,496	13,42,472
Paints and Colours	val.	.	31,295	.	.	..	31,295
Paper & Pasteboard	cwt.	3,835	2,15,666		..	3,835	2,15,666
Provisions— Ghee	,,	15	5,679	..	..	15	5,679
Others	,,	155	2,731	10	354	165	3,085
Salt	ton	4,129	1,01,203	7,694	3,13,335	11,823	5,14,538
Seeds	,,	2,490	20,79,465	..	..	2,490	20,79,465
Spices	cwt.	3	250	23	1,000	26	1,250
Stone & Marble	ton	3	4,000	..	..	3	4,000
Textile goods	val.	.	100	..	..	..	100
Tobacco	lbs.	18,885	17,005		..	18,885	17,005
Timber	val.	..	24,395	.	1,44,772	..	1,69,167
Sundries	,,	.	1,27,658	..	10,360	..	1,38,018
				Total value.			91,46,719

APPENDIX V.—(*Contd.*)

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF CALICUT
To Foreign Countries by Steamers during the period 1st July, 1959 to 30th June, 1960

Goods and Destination	*Quantity*	*Goods and Destination*	*Quantity*
Coir Yarn	Cwts.		
Germany	42,899	Coir Rope	Cwts.
United Kingdom	22,211	Aden	813
Belgium	3,753	Qtar	238
Denmark	3,975	Bahrein	2,644
Holland	5,037	Kuwait	1,485
France	25,103	Dubai	383
Italy	20,377	Basrah	1,071
Greece	2,694		
U. S. A	7,988	Ginger.	
Portugal	150	Aden	17,824
Norway	4,485	Holland	20
Africa	810	France	65
Japan	99	Italy	200
Aden	178	Pepper.	
Kuwait	1,603	Italy	1,904
Bahrein	549	U. S. A.	2,846
Basrah	3,756	United Kingdom	749
Rosewood.	Ton	Holland	85
Holland	13	Germany	200
Germany	291	Aden	670
United Kingdom	59	Coffee	
Italy	1,612	Italy	1,082
France	193	Germany	827
Sweden	12	United Kingdom	197
Belgium	93	Belgium	76
Denmark	44	Greece	1,695
Japan	64		
Copra Cake	Cwts.	Manioc Meal	
Germany	7,000	Germany	46,969
		Holland	3,975
Tea.	Lbs.	Tiles.	No.
United Kingdom	2,456,263	Penang	1,484,761
		Malacca	274,873
Timber.	Ton	Port Swettenham	1,500,760
Aden	12	Singapore	723,085
Kuwait	133		
Khorramshahr	116	Palmyra Fibre	Cwts.
Bahrein	285	United Kingdom	1,827
Qtar.	72	Cardamom.	
Deman	134	Sweden	80
Basrah	230	Germany	10
Cashew Kernels	Cwts.	Frozen Shrimp.	
U. S. A.	11,237		
Holland	505	U. S. A.	85
Belgium	142	Grass Mats.	
United Kingdom	1,762	Kuwait	333
Germany	11	Coir Mats.	
Norway	177	Kuwait	253
France	70		
Sweden	66		

APPENDIX—V. (*Contd.*)

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF CALICUT

To Foreign Countries by Country Crafts during the year 1959-60 (1st July 1959 to 30th June 1960)

Articles		*Kuwait*	*Bahrein*	*Qtar*	*Dubai*	*Muscat*	*Mukalla*	*Sharjah*	*Ceylon Ports*	*Colombo Port*
Timber	Ton	1,016	181	5,033	1,157	85	278	31	..	..
Bamboo Blinds	cwt	5,481	1,300	5,850	1,058	2,532	..	..	..	..
Fish Oil	..	223	46	367	335	..	..	..	..	..
Grass Mats	..	351	80	369	218	..		..	..	..
Coir Yarn	,,	1,184	924	1,294	1,169	62	150	18	..	..
Coir Rope	,,	1,794	1,673	2,199	1,654	66	239	25	..	..
Tamarind	,,	60	..	559	450	15		10	..	..
Tiles	Nos.	..				..	.		6,797,533	9,857,571

APPENDIX V—(contd)

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF CALICUT

To Indian Ports by Steamers during the year 1959-60 (1st July, 1959 to 39th June, 1960)

Articles		Bombay Ports	Other Indian Ports	Articles		Bombay Ports	Other Indian Ports
Coconuts	Nos.	32,101,777	7,582,011	Sheet Rubber	Cwt.	1,921	..
Copra	Cwt.	55,188	840	Tea	Lbs.	28,896	87,243
Ginger	"	38,355	1,858	Tapioca Chips	Cwt.	10,190	..
Pepper	"	16,010	30	Tapioca Starch	"	164	..
Coir Ya	"	15,729	2,828	Turmeric	"	..	21
Coir Rope	"	28,688	1,322	Timber	Ton	..	162
Umbrella sticks	Doz.	25,298	..	Soap	Cwt.	166	24
Drugs	Cwt.	3,536	..	Chikkakai	"	237	..
Rubber Latex	"	54,318		Coconut Oil	Lbs.	..	9,032
Raw Rubber	"	2,702		Fish Oil	Cwts.	621	..

APPENDIX—V. (*Contd.*)

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF CALICUT

To Indian Ports by Country Crafts during the year 1959-60 (1st July, 1959 to 30th June, 1960)

Articles		*Bombay Ports*	*Kathiawar Ports*	*Island Ports*	*Other Indian Ports*
Timber	Tons	17,754	30,904	..	..
Bamboo Blinds	Cwts.	1,435	45,210	..	..
Tiles	Nos.	2,149,318	9,086,767	..	37,500
Tapioca Chips	Cwts.	83,758	..	..	..
Tapioca Starch	,,	1,801	.	..	..
Manioc Meal	,,	2,000	..	..	..
Coir Yarn	,,	12	884	..	..
Coir Rope	,,	18	246	481	..
Rice	Tons	..	..	2,231	..

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF CALICUT

From Foreign Ports by Steamers during the year 1959-60 (1st July 1959 to 30th June, 1960)

Articles		*Africa*	*Rangoon*	*Colombo*
Cashewnuts	bag	15,256	..	..
Rice	..	..	366,155	..
Copra	..	..	..	12,853

APPENDIX V (contd.)

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF CALICUT

From Foreign Ports by Country Crafts during the year 1959-60 (1st July, 1959 to 30th June, 1960.)

Articles		*Island Port*	*Colombo*	*Basrah*
Copra	Tons	4,664	241	
Wet Dates	Cwts.			35,581

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF CALICUT

From Indian Ports by Steamers during the year 1959-60 (1st July, 1959 to 30th June, 1960)

Grain and Pulse	bag	2,291	Umbrella fitting	case	87
Cereals	,,	4,016	Umbrella ribs	,,	300
Drug	Pkg.	80	Chemicals	Pkg.	603
Fruit	,,	245	Wheat flour	bag.	4,030
Soap	case	17,643	Machinery Parts	pkg.	37
Old News Paper	bdl.	904	Printing ink	,,	8
Hardware	Pkg.	3,032	Toilets	,,	132
Cotton	bale	4,068	Vim powder	case	110
Paint & Varnish	Pkg.	2,942	Jaggery	Pkg.	18
Colour and Blue	case	57	Resins & Gums	,,	167
Dry Battery	,,	5,259	Glucose	case	230
Piece Goods	bale	1,306	Squash & Syrups	,,	119
Umbrella cloth	,,	239	Soda sash	bag	1,261
Tobacco	bora	5,903	Pappadkhar	,,	30
Flour	bag	459	Oil Cake	,,	140

APPENDIX—VI

Statement showing the figures of the volume of Export trade carried on via rail-route in Kozhikode District during the year 1958-59

Station (1)	Coal & Coke (2)	Cotton Raw (3)	Cotton manufactured (4)	Dyes & Tans (5)	Grains & pulses (6)	Hides Skins & leather (7)	Groundnuts (8)	Metals & Manganese (9)	Provisions (10)
Thirunavai		.	..	.	179	1,854		49	1,032
Tirur	..	..	5,048	89	613	198	.	6,150	4,823
Ponnani OA	..	..	217	..	22	.	..	164	326
Tanur	..	..	5	..	1,688		.	70	5,269
Parappanangadi	.	..	..	.	55		..	1,113	5,062
Vallikunnu	..	..	23		39		.	146	1,485
Kadalundi	.	..	1,715		6	.	..	224	3,407
Feroke	..	33	1,654	.	8,769	..	.	3,076	21,808
Kallai	..	..	39		24,556	1,912	.	2,288	1,120
Calicut	7	19,608	6,426	1,225	258,500	2,602	.	13,362	358,191
„ TBO	..	207	922	192	2,279	600	.	2,705	7,852
West Hill	..	..	33	..	1,132	2	..	1,786	11,454
Elathur	..	..	..	.	30		..	101	216
Chemancheri		..			..	..	..	..	..
Pantalayini		..	145	.	191	.	..	754	2,205
Tikkodi	..	.	57		15	.	..	99	249
Payyoli	..	..	..	.	4		..	10	1,041
Badagara	..	..	74	.	2	5	..	408	7,619
Nadapuram	.	..		.		1	..	1	506
Mahe	.	.	..	.	.	..	..	313	983

Station	Oils	Oil seeds	Salt	Spices	Sugar	Wood unwrought	Other Commodities	Total
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Tirunavayi	..	2,985	26	1,115	..	1,733	103,596	112,569
Tirur	777	43	.	2,897	128	724	147,701	169,191
Ponnani OA	129	..	.	63		44	24,627	25,592
Tanur	71	5,273	..	1,215	5	370	27,389	41,355
Parappanangadi	26	216	..		..	[illegible]	38,462	51,527
Vallikunnu		..	.			7	1,831	3,531
Kadalundi	12	605	..	2	..	7,279	155,938	169,188
Feroke	3,303	..	..	1,062	594	178,187	1,313,113	1,531,601
Kallai	..	42	..	..	.	264,730	106,305	1,400,992
Calicut	59,524	82,318	1,410	48,098	19,076	328,745	471,383	1,680,612
,, TBO	58	838	.	2,187	120	3,658	20,273	41,891
West Hill	18,764	298	6	..		7,216	39,129	79,820
Elathur	..	..	.	216	..	.	45,723	46,293
Chemancheri	.	..	..	..	..	.	..	..
Pantalayini	275	121		266	..	..	42,866	46,323
Tikkodi		91	..	..			7,323	7,834
Payyoli	..	..	..	1,156	.	24	165	2,400
Badagara	7,943	43,450	5,288	4,929	..	16,870	122,371	210,959
Nadapuram	..	.	..	..	.	..	411	918
Mahe	9	..	..	767	.	..	12,551	24,623
					Total			5,647,219

APPENDIX—VI. (*Cond.*)

Statement showing the figures of the volume of Import trade carried on via rail-route in Kozhikode District during the year 1958-59

Station	*Coal & Coke*	*Cotton Raw*	*Cotton manufactured*	*Dyes & Tans*	*Grains & Pulses*	*Hides skin & leather*	*Groundnuts*	*Metals & Manganese*	*Provisions*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(8)	(10)
Tirunavayi	..	..	..	.	477	..	.	144	82
Tirur	..	33	..	..	285,331	84	161	1,423	52,037
Ponnani OA	..	..	..	.	113	30	..	557	300
Tanur	..	..	..	.	4,524	6	29	2,283	1,696
Parappanangadi	..	..	..	.	4,771	4	.	5,967	46
Vallikunnu	..	..	..	..	18	..	..	12	..
Kadalundi	..	..	..		..	..	.	47	93
Feroke	1,180	..		..	2,113	15	.	7,585	3,945
Kallai	..	496	..	..	38,785	1	..	2,065	1,341
Calicut	10,350	365	..	..	3,591,833	1,338	..	68,665	148,139
West Hill	17,954	..	..	..	40	..	5	8,873	311
Elathur	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	32	..
Chemancheri	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pantalayini	..	..	..	..	251	11	..	174	119
Tikkodi	..	..	.	..	14	.	..	49	169
Payyoli	..	5	..	..	10	.		1,122	39
Badagara	..	5	..	..	54,005	13		4,028	91
Nadapuram Rd.	..	..	..	..	15	.	..	7	7
Mahe	..	5	..	..	305	..	.	788	747

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Station	*Oils*	*Oil seeds*	*Salt*	*Spices*	*Sugar*	*Wood unwrought*	*Other Commodities*	*Total*
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Tirunavayi	1,971	19	4,614	79	65	224	1,572	9,247
Tirur	20,053	3,051	21,523	342	10,804	1,270	112,397	508,509
Ponnani OA	354	112		37	.	17	7,176	8,696
Tanur	1,661	465	8,819	362	1,891	411	5,261	27,408
Parappanangadi	12,602	25	14,015	31	1,422	71	22,552	61,506
Vallikunnu	1,037	..		6	16	5	1,090	2,184
Kadalundi	1,780	.	..	33	..	1,298	3,173	6,424
Feroke	3,433	20		516	42	31,365	88,601	137,815
Kallai	9,056	9,084	..	109	6	377,762	22,229	460,934
Calicut	536,412	19,807	12,969	45,792	199,703	28,649	1,407,317	6,071,339
West Hill	126	8,020	1,019	..	..	2,459	77,969	116,676
Elathur	3,186	..	545	.	.	1,152	914	5,831
Chemancheri	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..
Pantalayini	6,993	..	..	3	9	3,914	23,395	34,869
Tikkodi	6,213	..	550	..	..	451	1,902	9,348
Payyoli	160	..	..		4	84	895	2,319
Badagara	37,111	635	2	1,719	5,969	1,349	81,445	186,372
Nadapuram Rd.	..	..	..	..	..	40	228	297
Mahe	1,926	..	.	.	13,184	470	32,356	50,581
						Total		7,638,849

APPENDIX—VII

Statement of traffic carried by the waterways from each of the principal landing places in the District.

Centre		*Commodity*	*Tons*
Badagara Payyoli	North Bound	Nil	Nil
	South Bound Calicut	Tapioca	2,047
		Coconut & its products	15,990
		Fish & Fish oil	320
		Coir & its allied products	218
		Cashewnuts	41
		Pepper	220
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	26,600
		Shell Lime	1,080
		Vegetables	1,007
		Others	205
		Total	47,728
Calicut	North Bound Elathur	Rice	6,130
		Coconut & its allied products	410
		Provisions	10,020
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	8,500
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	6,500
		Kerosene	180
		Salt	11,500
		Vegetables	400
		Others	330
	Kuttiyadi	Rice	4,500
		Coconut & its products	350
		Provisions	8,600
		Fish & Fish oil	425
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	12,000
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	1050
		Kerosene	115
		Salt	850
		Others	465
	Badagara	Rice	3,200
		Coconut & its products	260
		Provisions	7,400
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	9,500
		Arecanut	85
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	450
		Salt	650
		Others	250
		Total	94,120
	South Bound Tirur	Coconut & its products	5,500
		Provisions	1,200
		Fish & Fish oil	650
		Coir and its allied products	70
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	12,000
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	3,500
		Vegetables	200

Centre		Commodity	Tons
	Cochin	Tapioca	510
		Coconut & its products	2,500
		Fish & Fish oil	840
		Coir & its allied products	120
		Cashewnuts	15
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	25,000
		Pepper	20
		Arecanut	148
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	18,500
		Others	420
	Changanacherry	Fish & Fish oil	360
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	48,000
		Total	119,553
Tirur	North Bound Kadalundi	Rice	9,500
		Provisions	1,640
		Sand & Stone	2,050
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	900
		Kerosene	4,550
		Salt	600
		Vegetables	630
		Others	460
	Calicut	Coconut & its products	1,200
		Coir & its allied products	325
		Arecanut	150
		Shell lime	420
		Others	590
		Total	23,015
	South Bound Ponnani	Tapioca	300
		Coconut & its products	16,500
		Provisions	1,020
		Coir & its allied products	14
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	2,400
		Sand & Stone	790
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	280
		Salt	350
		Shell lime	12
		Vegetables	320
		Others	280
	Cochin	Tapioca	1,400
		Coconut & its products	8,500
		Fish & Fish oils	112
		Coir & its allied products	20
		Tiles, Bricks & Clay	250
		Pepper	1,440
		Arecanut	220
		Bamboo, Firewood & Timber	1,423
		Others	540
	Changanacherry	Fish & Fish oil	516
		Tile, Bricks & Clay	3,200
	Quilon	Tapioca	1,800
		Cashewnuts	3,750
		Total	45,437

APPENDIX—VIII

An analysis of the over-all traffic by waterways, road and rail from each of the landing places in Kozhikode District

Name of the landing place	*Taluk served*	*Total production*		*Local consumption*	*Surplus available*	*Transported by Waterways*			*Transported by road*	*Transported by rail*	*Total of Col. 8 to 10*
		Commodity	*Tons*		(3—4)	*S.B.*	*N.B.*	*Total*			
(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Badagara	Badagara	Coconut	123,347	42,000	81,347						
Payyoli	Quilandi	Arecanut	3,785	750	3,035						
		Cashewnut	1,581	420	1,161						
		Pepper	1,632	42	1,590						
		Other agricultural produces	1,200	1,200	..	47,728	.	47,728	76,460	10,640	134,828
		Timber, Lime shell, Fish, Coir and others	62,600	18,400	44,200						
			221,140	86,312	134,828						
Calicut	Kozhikode	Coconut	75,658	45,000	30,658						
		Arecanut	4,314	414	3,900						
		Tapioca	32,815	30,800	2,015						
		Other agricultural produces	680	680	..	119,553	94,120	213,673	82,410	151,800	447,883
		Timber	250,000	20,000	230,000						
		Tiles	164,300	8,000	156,300						
		Fish, fish oil	25,000	17,990	7,010						
		Others	20,500	2,500	18,000						
Tirur	Tirur	Coconut	81,271	40,871	40,400						
	Manjeri	Arecanut	14,680	650	14,030						
		Tapioca	71,985	64,965	7,020						
		Cashewnut	3,524	524	3,000						
		Other agricultural produces	1,580	780	800						
		Fish & fish oil	28,500	20,000	8,500	45,437	23,015	68,452	72,498	6,700	147,650
		Timber Tiles & others	82,400	8,500	73,900						
			283,940	136,290	147,650						

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Old time highways and roads

The climate and the physical character of the District have been unfavourable to large scale road making. Hence in ancient times traffic was carried on more by water than by land. Narrow footpaths ran at random through paddy fields without any regard to the convenience of the travelling public. Roads and bullock-carts did not exist. Nor were they considered a dire necessity. This might have been due to the splitting up of the country into rival principalities. W. Logan has stated thus: "A force on the march went in single pile and unencumbered by artillery and it was only after the Mysorean invasion under Haider Ali and Tippu Sultan that the necessity for roads capable of carrying heavy guns began to be felt".[1] Tipu was the pioneer of the roads of the District. The minute by Colonel Dow, one of the Joint Commissioners, shows the state of roads in 1796 shortly after the British acquisition of the District. It states "Tippu projected and in a great part finished an extensive chain of roads that connected all the principal places in Malabar and pervaded the wildest parts of the country".[2] The grand termination of these inter-communications was Seringapatam and as the route necessarily led over the Ghats, neither labour nor expense was spared in rendering it practicable for carrying artillery. The following roads find a place in the account of Tipu's Gun-roads by Shamnauth.

1. From Calicut to the present cantonment Polwye by Purrinalettu Cheakur, Tamaracheri.
2. From Malapuram to Tamaracheri.
3. From Malapuram to Pudapani and from thence to the ghat.

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1 *Malabar Manual*, Vol. I, William Logan, p. 62.

2 Quoted in the *Malabar District Gazetteer*, Innes & Evans, p. 268.

4. From Calicut to Ferokia, Carate Hobli, Elamaruthoo, Chatamungul, Purrinalettu, Tamaracheri.

5. From Ferokia through Shernad Taluk, by Chalapoora Hobli, Pooloor, Tirurangadi, Venkatakotta, Poolanalettu, Erakerlu, Kemaro, Waleakoomuttu, Tiruchera-paramba, Cowlpara, Mungarey river, Pattambi, Walayar river, Coimbatore.

6. From Venkatakotta, Purumbil, Walluanatakunny (Velateru), Palaketeri, Angadipuram, Muleakurchi, Karialutu, Vellatur, Rapelallawuloora, Peynat, Koondepulla river, Mannar, Attaparu, Tengraumttooroo, Wellimamutu, Coimbatore.

Not much information is available about Tipu's Gun-roads in the District from the account of Shamnauth except that the majority of them started from Mount Deli and had for "their general direction" the Tamaracheri and Periya Ghats. Due to the lack of attention to repair works, these hastily improvised roads of Tipu which were neither well made nor properly drained soon fell into disrepair. In 1796 the British Government deputed a Captain Lieutenant of Engineers to report on the state of the gun-roads. The Collectors of the small Districts into which Malabar was divided in 1800 were encouraged to pay special attention to the maintenance of roads. Mr. Wye of Angadipuram was permitted in 1801 to devote to roads and bridges the proceeds of ferry farms and magisterial fines. Dr. Buchanan who travelled through Malabar in 1800 and 1801 however condemned the majority of the roads as very bad. A little later in 1807 Mr. Thackeray, the uncle of the famous Western novelist, reported that "Malabar was intersected by better roads perhaps than any other province in India"[1]. The main roads of the District at this time were the Coast Roads and those from Calicut to Tamarasseri and from Kuttiyadi to Calicut. A long period of stagnation ensued till 1848 when Mr. Conolly reported that the condition of the roads was far from satisfactory. The Coast Road was "generally available, though in parts very difficult for carts" and there were important bullock tracks up the Perambadi, Kuttiyadi, Tamarasseri and Sispara Ghats, but of the "vast number of secondary

1 *Malabar District Gazetteer*, Innes & Evans, p. 269.

roads intersecting the District", few if any were practicable for wheeled traffic[1]. The deterioration of the roads in this period is not a matter for surprise, for in 1831 Government gave up all attempts to maintain them in good order. The *Maramat* Department which had charge of them was devoid of professional skill, as it was only the Revenue Department under another name. However, the Military Engineer of Malabar and South Canara and subsequently the Civil Engineer appointed for those districts gave the Department the necessary technical guidance. The Tahsildars, assisted by Taluk maistries, were the executive officers; and for a time even prepared the estimates. Moreover, the Department was also supplied with insufficient funds. All these factors explain the slow progress of road-building in the District till about the middle of the 19th century.

DEVELOPMENT OF ROAD COMMUNICATION

The period between 1850 and 1910 witnessed an immense extension of roads. But most of the roads constructed during this period were mere feeders to the railway, but among the exceptions are the great highways of the District. First and foremost is the Tamarasseri Ghat road which tapped the planting areas of Wynad and conveyed to the sea at Calicut heavy consignments of coffee, pepper and tea. The extension of the road system was done at the report of Mr. Connolly. Many roads were also constructed in the Mappila zone of the District with the proceeds of the "Mappila fines". In addition a few miles of municipal roads also were constructed during this period. In 1920 the Madras-Calicut road (94 miles), the Gudalur-Calicut road (40 miles) and the Gudalur-Vayithiri road (19 miles) were designed as trunk roads and Government provided grants for their maintenance in the annual budgets. Towards the maintenance of other roads Government contributed half the cost to the Malabar District Board.

The period which followed the independence of India and the re-organisation of States witnessed a rapid progress in the construction of roads. Not only new roads sprang up but numerous deviations and new alignments to the existing roads were effected as a result of which great changes occurred in their relative importance. The condition of all the main roads in the District is generally good. Metalling with granite,

1. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, Innes and Evans, p. 269.

cement concreting, and bituminous surfacing during recent years have contributed much to make roads fit for wheeled traffic. But most of the village roads still continue to remain as gravel and mud-roads and their condition continues to remain unsatisfactory. This may be due to more reasons than one. There are difficulties in procuring suitable road-making materials, in bridging innumerable rivers and irrigation canals, and above all, in raising or lowering the level of the land. These difficulties hamper the progress of road construction in the District. Though the District may be said to be well served in the matter of main roads or through communications, some areas of it such as South Wynad and Quilandi have yet to be opened up by the construction of new roads. Short feeder roads are said to be necessary to connect the villages to the main roads. There is no national highway in this District, but the newly proposed Bombay-Cape Comorin Road, which is under execution is to be of the National Highway standard.

There are 27 Major District Roads maintained by the Public Works Department in this District. All of them are metalled and their total mileage comes to about 175 miles. The number of Minor District Roads maintained by the Public Works Department come to 19. Of these 11 roads having a total mileage of 64 miles and 3½ furlongs are metalled and 8 roads having a total mileage of 42 miles and 3 furlongs are unmetalled. Besides the Public Works Department is also maintaining 6 Village Roads having a total mileage of about 14 miles. Of these about 9 miles are unmetalled.

Further there are 29 Minor District Roads measuring about 142 miles and 6 Village Roads measuring about 25 miles being maintained by the Malabar District Board in the District. They will be transferred to the Public Works Department for maintenance with effect from the date of enforcement of the Kerala Panchayat Act, 1960. The Panchayats are also maintaining some Village Roads which are mostly unmetalled.

Moreover the Calicut Municipality is maintaining 71 miles 1 furlong and 41 yards of roads and the Badagara Municipality 22 miles and 3 furlongs of roads.[1]

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1. Details can be had from Chapter XIV.

The following are the details regarding the existing road systems of this District in 1961.

	Length of road		
	Miles	*Furlongs*	*Feet*
Type of roads:			
1. Bitumenous or tarred	222	1	0
2. Concrete	1	7	0
3. Water bound mecadam and pavements and stones	270	5	0
4. Lower type	213	0	330
Category of road			
1. Provisional Highways	171	5	0
2. Major District Roads	355	3	450
3. Ordinary District Roads	114	6	0
4. Village Roads	123	8	222

Source: Executive Engineer, Buildings & Roads, Kozhikode.

The up-to-date classified list of Major and Minor District Roads and Village Roads maintained by the Public Works Department in the Kozhikode District in 1961 with details of their mileage is given in Appendix I at the end of this chapter.

Brief descriptions of the most important roads in the District are given below:

Calicut-Nilambur-Gudalur road

This road overlaps the Madras-Calicut road up to 23|6 (421|4 of Madras-Calicut road) and then takes its course eastward and ends at 64|3 in Gudalur Taluk (Nilgiri District). In its course it passes through Manjeri Taluk.

The stretch beyond 64|3 is in Gudalur Taluk. It touches the following places on its way.

Manjeri	..	mile	29|3 (T.B.)*
Edavanna	..	„	36|6
Vadapuram	..	„	42|8
Nilambur	..	„	44|8 (T.B.)

There is a bridge over Edavanna river at 37|1, over Vadapuram river at 42|8, and over Karimpuzha river at 47|6.

* T.B.—Travellers Bungalow.

The following roads either take off or are crossed by this road from Mongam to Gudalur.

Mongam	Madras- Calicut road	23/6
Manjeri	(1) Manjeri-Malappuram road	29/3
	(2) Manjeri-Pandikkad road	29/3
Trikkalangode	Trikkalangode-Tiruvali road	33/1
Edavanna	Edavanna-Wandur road	36/8
Vadapuram	Vadapuram-Wandur road	42/6
Nilambur	Nilambur-Kalikavu-Karuvarakundu road	45/8

The Ghat section of the road begins at mile 57|0 and ends at 68|0 but the state boundary is at 64|3. It has got one hair pin bend. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Calicut-Vayithiri-Gudalur road

This road starts from Kozhikode District near the D.S.P.'s Office and takes its course in north-easterly direction and stops at 60|3 mile in Gudalur Taluk (Nilgiri District). In ts course, it passes through Kozhikode and South Wynad Taluks. It touches the following places on its way.

Eranhippalam	..	mile	2|3	
Kunnamangalam	..	,,	9|8	
Tamarasseri	..	,,	17|6	
Puduppadi	.	,,	26|0	
Takarappadi	.	,,	32|6	
Lakkidi	..	,,	35|8	(T.B.)
Vayithiri	..	,,	39|4	(T.B. near 39|7)
Chundale	.	,,	41|7	
Meppadi	..	,,	48|4	
Choladi	..	,,	63|0	

It crosses the Canolly canal at mile 2|3 (Eranhippalam bridge), Engapuzha at 24|1, Kadungapuzha at 26|4 and Vancheripuzha at 27|8, Odakolleepuzha at 42|7 and Choladi river at 60|3 the limit of the State. The Ghat section begins from 27|7 of this road and ends at 35|5 (Lakkidi). It has got 9 hair pin bends. The road is motorable throughout the year.

The following roads either take off from or are crossed by this road from Calicut to Choladi.

Eranhippalam

Calicut-Balusseri road 2|3 M.D.R.[1]
Kunnamangalam-Manasseri Mukkom road 9|3 O.D.R.

Tamarasseri

Quilandi-Ulleri, Balusseri-Tamarasseri road M.D.R.

Vayithiri

Vayithiri-Poidana-Kuthirapandy road 349|3.

Chundale

Calicut-Mysore Frontier road branches at 41|6.

Meppadi

Meppadi-Cheeramala road O.D.R.[2]

Vaduvanchal

Vaduvanchal to 57|2 of C.M.F.[3] road O.D.R.

Madras-Calicut road

This road starts from Madras and enters Manjeri Taluk of the Kozhikode District at mile 411|6 and in its course passes through the Taluk of Kozhikode at mile 445|2. The stretch before 441|7 is in Palghat District. It touches the following important places on its way.

1.	Malappuram	..	412|7 (I.B.[4] near 412|3)
2.	Mongam	..	423|5
3.	Kondotti	..	428|7 (T.B.)
4.	Ramanattukara	..	435|3
5.	Feroke	..	438|2
6.	Kallai	..	443|7
7.	Calicut	..	445|2

It crosses the Kootilangadi bridge at mile 411|6, Feroke bridge over Chaliyam river at mile 438|4 and 5 and Kallai bridge over Kallai river at mile 443|8. The following roads take off or are crossed by this road.

1. M.D.R.=Major District Road.
2. O.D.R.=Ordinary District Road.
3. C.M.F. Road=Calicut Mysore Frontier Road.
4. I.B.=Inspection Bungalow.

Tirur-Malappuram road mile 413|1 M.D.R.
Malappuram-Manjeri road mile 413|4 M.D.R.
Malappuram-Tirurangadi road mile 414|7 O.D.R.
Calicut-Nilambur-Gudalur road mile 421|4 State Highways.
Kondotti-Ariyakod road mile 427|3 M.D.R.
Kondotti-Tirurangadi road mile 427|5 O.D.R.
Ramanattukara-Parakadavu road mile 435|3
Naduvattam-Beypore road mile 442|3 O.D.R.

The road is motorable throughout the year.

Calicut-Cannanore road

This road starts from Calicut near the State Bank, Calicut, at mile 0|1 of Calicut-Vayithiri-Gudalur road and enters Quilandi Taluk at mile 8|0, Badagara Taluk at mile 26|4 of Kozhikode District and ends at 56|2 of Cannanore District. The stretch of the road beyond Badagara Taluk mile 38|5 is in Cannanore District. After crossing Kozhikode District into Cannanore District it runs in a northward direction till it reaches Cannanore. This road forms part of West Coast Road. It touches the following places on its way.

1. Kerala Poly-technic at Calicut mile 2|4 (T.B. 2|5)
2. Elathur (R.S.) „ 7|2
3. Quilandi „ 15|0
4. Payyoli „ 22|4
5. Badagara „ 29|0
6. Nadapuram
7. Mahe (Pondicherry State) „ 38|5

It crosses Korapuzha river at mile 7|8 and Murat river at mile 26|3 where bridges are provided. This road is motorable throughout the year. The following roads either take off from or are crossed by this road from Calicut to Mahe.

Pudiyangadi-Kakkodi road mile 3|6 O.D.R.
Quilandi-Ulleri road mile 14|7 O.D.R.
Payyoli-Perambra road
Badagara-Villipalli road 29|2
Muttungal-Nadapuram-Kuttiyadi road at mile 31|3 M.D.R.
Nadapuram Railway Station road mile 32|3
Mahe Bye pass road 36|4

At mile 37|0 at Azhiyur village the road joins Mahe road.

Calicut-Mysore Frontier road

The road overlaps Calicut-Vayithiri-Gudalur road for the first 41 miles 6 furlongs and then branches off to the left at Chundale and ends at 73|1 in Mysore State. In its course after branching from Chundale it passes through South Wynad Taluk only. The stretch beyond 73|1 is in Gundalpet Taluk, Mysore State. It touches the following places on its way.

Chundale	..	41|6
Kalpetta	..	45|6
Meenangadi	..	53|4 (Branch road to T.B.)
Sultan's Battery	..	60|0 (T.B. 60|4)
Muthunga.		

The road crosses many rivers and streams over which there are bridges. The more important bridges are at mile 44|8, 49|8, 52|2, 55|6, 62|2, 66|7, 69|1 and 73|1.

The following roads either take off or are crossed by this road from Chundale to Mysore Frontier.

Edapatty-Manantoddy road (via) Panamaram	M. 47|3
Kaniambetta-Meenangadi road	„ 56|6
Colony road to Vaduvanchal 57|2 branching at 57|3 of this road	
Sultan's Battery-Cherambadi road	60|4
Sultan's Battery-Nulpuzha road	60|7
Forest Road—Sultan's Battery-Chethalam road	61|1

The road is motorable throughout the year.

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

In ancient times wheeled traffic and pack-bullock traffic were unknown. The chief traffic of the District was carried on, as already alluded, by water. Graeme's Report on the District of Malabar dated 14th January, 1822 reads as follows: "Under the Rajas and Mysore Government boats were kept up by private owners for ferrying passengers over rivers and slight contributions were levied for their trouble, according to the circumstances of the passengers. In some places individuals maintained boats as a charity for the gratuitous passage of travellers".[1] It may therefore be rightly inferred that country boats were commonly used for purposes of transport and communication even from very early days. Even

1 *Malabar Manual, Vol. I,* Innes and Evans, p. 273.

today the transport of goods is carried on in this District by country boats on a large scale. A change, however, came about during the middle of the last century after the opening of roads for easy and free communication. A large number of country carts made their appearance on the roads of the District as in other parts of the State. They carried not only goods but also passengers. They are met with all over the District even today, though they are now being used mainly for the transport of goods between marketing centres. Horse carriages and other forms of conveyances were also not rare in the early part of this century. The total number of motor vehicles of different kinds on road in the District in August, 1961 is given below:

Motor cycles	300
Private cars	1,585
Goods vehicles	902
Taxi cars	73
Buses	265
Tractor Trailors	71
Auto-rikshaw	19
Others	68
Total	3,283

The following table gives the number of non-motor vehicles and conveyances licensed by the Panchayats as on 2nd February, 1960 under Madras Village Panchayat Act, 1950.

Bicycles	2,480
Hand carts	455
Rikshaws	7
Bullock carts	487
Trolley	47
Total	3,476

The following is a statement of the number and tonnage of crafts licensed to ply on the waters of the District in 1957-58.

Type of crafts.	*No.*	*Tonnage.*
Country crafts	405	1,376
Motor Boats	32	443

RAILWAYS

The District is almost well served with railways and rail-roads. The South West tract of the Southern Railways was opened in between the following stations on the dates noted against each.

Rail route	*Miles*	*Date*
Tirur to Kadalundi	17	12th March, 1861
Kuttipuram to Tirur	9	1st May, 1861
Kadalundi to Calicut	9	2nd January, 1888
Calicut to Badagara	28	1st October, 1901
Badagara to Tellicherry	14	1st May, 1901

There are two branches of the Southern Railway in the District, one running east to west from Kuttipuram to Tirur, and the other south to north from Tirur to Mahe. Both are broad gauge lines. The railway line enters the Kozhikode District at Kuttipuram railway station which is on the Karakkad-Calicut and West Hill-Cannanore section of the Olavakkod Division of the Southern Railway with its headquarters at Olavakkod. It then courses through the District for 87 miles cutting across the Taluks of Tirur, Kozhikode, Quilandi and Badagara. It has 22 stations on its route, through this District. Waiting rooms are provided for the convenience of the travelling public at Tirur, Parappanangadi, Feroke, Kallai, Calicut, West Hill, Pantalayini and Badagara. There are tea stalls and refreshment shops at Calicut and Tirur. The following table gives the names of railway stations in the Kozhikode District with such details as the distance between stations, the volume of passenger and goods traffic and amenities provided.

Actual distance between stations	*Railway stations*	*Year ending 31st March, 1957*		
		No. of passengers booked	*Goods*	
			Inwards Mds.	*Outwards Mds.*
	Kuttipuram	288,028	185,439	57,566
4	Tirunavayi	152,349	6,620	42,914
5 1/4	Tirur (S) (W)	425,359	466,903	252.040
5	Tanur	171,426	43,201	27,580
5	Parappanangadi (W)	243,303	50,558	21,330
3 1/4	Vallikunnu	103,457	2,575	4,892

Actual distance between stations	Railway stations	Year ending 31st March, 1957		
		No. of passengers booked	Goods	
			Inwards Mds.	Outwards Mds.
3 1/4	Kadalundi	134,677	15,058	167,171
3	Feroke (W)	188,629	144,550	1,327,440
5	Kallai (W)	95,618	588,277	1,504,370
1	Calicut (V) (N) (W)	992,864	5,376,808	2,454,932
1 1/4	Vellayil T. H.	93,948	..	..
1 3/4	West Hill (W)	57,204	52,478	65,395
4 1/2	Elathur	73,032	10,068	47,004
4 1/2	Chemancheri	65,874	..	44
3 1/4	Panthalaylni (W)	186,110	27,293	12,199
5 3/4	Tikkodi	81,654	21,946	12,750
1 3/4	Payyoli	131,958	1,098	7,691
2 1/2	Iringal	70,658	..	..
3 1/2	Badagara (W)	317,908	218,800	220,598
3 1/2	Nadapuram Road	116,210	441	391
2 1/2	Mukkali T. H.	70,650		..
2 1/4	Mahe (W)	111,762	37,089	8,224

N—Non-vegetarian refreshment room
V—Vegetarian refreshment room
S—Tea, Coffee, or light refreshment stall
W—Waiting rooms
T.H.—Train halt

PUBLIC TRANSPORT

The State Transport Department extended its activities to the Kozhikode District in 1957 after the inauguration of Kerala State. The first State Transport service introduced in the District was the Express Bus Service from Kozhikode to Kalpetta. This was discontinued in 1959 and in its place two ordinary bus services were introduced from Kozhikode to Sultan's Battery. Since then seven more services have been introduced on this route. The Trichur-Kozhikode and the Trichur-Ernakulam services also covered this District from 1957 onwards. Later on two schedules of the Kozhikode-Trichur service began to operate with headquarters at Kozhikode. In 1961 there were seven ordinary services and three express services operating in the District under the State

Transport Department. The total daily operated mileage was 182 miles. There are no special amenities provided by the Department to the passengers anywhere in the District. The State Transport services in Kozhikode were under the jurisdiction of the District Transport Officer, Trichur, till October, 29, 1961 on which date a new Transport District comprising of the three Districts of Kozhikode, Cannanore and Palghat was formed under a District Transport Officer with headquarters at Calicut.

The Calicut Municipality maintains its own Town Bus service which is the only one of its kind in Kerala and Madras States. In 1961 the Municipal Buses were running on three routes namely the Railway Station—Devagiri College route, the Railway Station—Medical College route and Municipal Office—Medical College via Cherambalam.[1]

The private operators play a dominant role in the transport system of the District. There is a Regional Transport Officer at Calicut having jurisdiction over the whole District. There are one Motor Vehicles Inspector, and four Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors under him. The registration of motor vehicles, licensing of drivers and conductors etc. are done by them. The Regional Transport Officer is the Secretary of the Regional Transport Authority and the Chief Executive of the Motor Vehicles Department at the District level. The day-to-day enforcement of the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act is done by him in his capacity as Secretary to the Regional Transport Authority. In 1961 there were 262 buses in the District under the management of private transport agencies. The number of town bus services was 27 and mofussil service 101. The names of the operators and the number of buses owned by each are given below:

		No. of buses.
1.	Ex-Servicemen, Kozhikode	15
2.	Sree Narayana Transports, Kozhikode	9
3.	Sankara Narayana Transports, Kozhikode	13
4.	Manjeri Motor Service, Manjeri	7
5.	N.V.M.S. Kozhikode	20
6.	Premier Transport, Kozhikode	3
7.	Modern Bus Transports, Kozhikode	7

1. Details of the Calicut Municipal Town Bus Service can be had from Chapter XIV.

8.	Rajalekshmi Motor Service, Kozhikode	12
9.	Malabar Motor Service, Manjeri	5
10.	C.C. Transport Company, Kozhikode	20
11.	Tritala Motor Service, Kuttipuram	9
12.	Indian Motor Service, Manjeri	12
13.	Calicut Wynad Motor Service (P) Ltd. Kozhikode	37
14.	Punchiri Motor Service, Badagara	15
15.	Bharath Motors, Manjeri	7
16.	Malabar Roadway Service, Kozhikode	22
17.	C.C. & K.P. Service, Kozhikode	10
18.	V.N.P. Motors, Kozhikode	7
19.	Janakiram Motor Service, Kozhikode	4
20.	C.C. Automobiles, Kozhikode	11
21.	Murugan Motors, Ponnani	2
22.	Ananda Vilas Motor Service, Karaparamba, Kozhikode	3
23.	Mannarghat Union Motor Service, Mannarghat	5
24.	Prakash Motors, Nilambur	2
25.	Deviprasad Motors, Kozhikode	4
26.	Pioneer Automobiles, Kozhikode	1
	Total	262

WATERWAYS

Up to the time of the Mysorean invasion the rivers and backwaters of the District were the main channels of trade and commerce. Almost through every Taluk, one or more rivers find their way to the West and being deprived of outlets to the sea by the littoral sand banks, discharge into a long line of backwaters running almost parallel to the shore. As rivers and backwaters were till recently the only means for transport of goods from one place to another, the necessity of linking these backwaters by canals was felt. The foreigners also settled most thickly close to or on the rivers and selected sites for their factories so as to command as much as possible these arteries of traffic.

There were formerly two important navigation canals, the Ponnani and Badagara. They were completed between 1840 and 1880. The Ponnani river near its mouth is connected on the north by a navigable creek with the Railway system

at Tirur railway station and on the south by the Ponnani canal with the backwaters of Velliyankode which again communicate with those further south, and boat traffic is possible by these means from Tirur to Trivandrum, a distance of two hundred miles. But the water communication is possible at present only for small boats and a scheme is under consideration for improving it. The important backwaters of the District and brief descriptions of the same are given below:

1. Kotta river backwater lies parallel to the coast in the Quilandi Taluk for a distance of about 4 miles. It tapers at both ends with a maximum width of about 3|4 mile in the centre. It is connected to the sea at Kottakkal, where there is a port. The Murat or Kuttiyadi river, draining an area of 166 sq. miles discharges its waters into this backwater.

2. The Korapuzha backwater spreads out into the Kozhikode and Quilandi Taluks. It has got two main creeks, one extending to the north for a distance of about 10 miles, and the other penetrating to the east for a distance of about 5 miles. It traces a 'U' shaped curve, and finds an exit to the sea near Elathur.

The existing navigation system of the District may be summed up as follows. The inland water route stretching from Badagara to Ponnani comprises of three sections viz. (1) Badagara to Kadalundi (34 miles), (2) Kadalundi to Kuttayi (28 miles) and (3) Kuttayi to Ponnani (6 miles).

The first section starts from Badagara bazaar with an artificial canal 4 furlongs long connecting Badagara with the backwaters of Murat river. The navigation line after leaving the backwaters follows a course towards east. At the middle of its navigable length there is a cut on its left bank at Payyoli, connecting it with Agolapuzha. The connecting channel is 3|4 mile long and its head is provided with a lock. The Agolapuzha flows into the Elathur-Kallai canal and connects itself with an arm of the Kallai river at Mankavu and finally enters Beypore river and after following its course upwards for some distance separates itself and joins the Kadalundi river through a cut. The important towns by this route are Badagara, Payyoli, Elathur, Kozhikode, Kallai and Feroke.

The second stretch begins from Kadalundi and ends at Kuttayi. The line follows the course of Kadalundi river as

far as Keeranellur bridge. Here it proceeds west following the course of Keeranellur river. At its turning towards south begins Pooraparamba river. After following the course of Pooraparamba river, it enters Tanur-Kuttayi canal. The important places touched by this route are Parappanangadi, Tanur and Pavannangadi.

The third stretch commences from Tirur and extends as far as Trivandrum. From Tirur to Ponnani the line follows the Tirur river. At Kuttayi 10 miles south of Tirur occurs the connection with Tanur-Kuttayi canal. During its course, it passes the important towns of Tirur and Ponnani.

A statement of landing places in the District with details of their location, facilities provided etc. is given in page 423

The particulars of passenger boat traffic operating on the different routes in the District are given in page 424.

Ferries.—Ferry boats are used where the rivers are not bridged. The list of ferries in the District for 1960-61 shows that there were 150 of them. Of these two were under the control of the Public Works Department and five under the control of the Panchayats. All the rest were under the control of the District Board. The ferries under the District Board fetched a total sum of Rs. 1,09,056 in 1960-61. The number of *changadams* maintained were 6 while the number of boats and rowers were 174 and 257 respectively. The two ferries at Chaliyam and Chanurvattam under the Public Works Department fetched Rs. 12,570. The ferries under the Panchayats were free services. The highest tax fetching ferries in the District are Chettukadavu in Calicut and Peringalamkadavu in Badagara which were leased out in 1960-61 for bid amounts of Rs. 8,535 and Rs. 6,375 respectively.

BRIDGES

There are five Major Bridges in the District viz., Kallai Bridge, Murat Bridge, Feroke Bridge, Kuttipuram Bridge and the Korapuzha Bridge. All these are maintained by the Roads and Buildings Division of the Public Works Department. Brief descriptions of each of the bridges are given below:

1. *Kallai Bridge.*—It is located at mile 443/8 of the Madras-Calicut road. Formerly a railway bridge, it was subsequently converted into a road bridge. It is a steel truss bridge having

Statement of landing places, their location and the transport facilities to places served by them

Section of the canal in which the landing place is located	*Taluk*	*Name of landing place*	*Principal places served by the landing place*	*Transport facilities available*
Badagara Kadalundi	Badagara	Kuttiyadi	Kuttiyadi market and neighbouring areas.	Wharf is being provided. From the landing place road leads to Kuttiyadi Badagara road.
do.	Kozhikode	Karaparamba	Karaparamba market and nearby areas.	The Wharf is near to the Calicut Perambra road.
do.	do.	Puthiyara	Calicut town and Puthiyara market.	A Wharf is provided and the landing place is being connected to Calicut-Puthiyara road.
Kadalundi Ponnani	Tirur	Tanur	Tanur market and Railway station.	Wharf is not in condition. An approach road connects the landing place with Tanur market.
do.	do.	Niramaradur	Niramaradur *desom* and market nearby.	Wharf is provided. The landing place has an approach road to Parappanangadi Tanur road.
do.	do.	Pandiyam	Vattom *amsom* and neighbouring area.	Wharf is not in condition. An apprach road connects the landing place with Tanur-Tirur road.
do.	do.	Tirur	Tirur market and Railway station	Basin and wharf provided by the Railway who lease the collection of fees by auction. The landing place is the terminus of the canal taking off at Kuttayi.

Particulars of passenger motor boats operating on different routes.

Sl. No.	Route	Distance miles	No. of boats operating	No. of trips	Duration of transport		Fare charged		No. of passengers carried per day
					Hrs.	Mts.	Rs.	nP.	
1	Badagara-Kuttiyadi (Murat river)	22	2	2	4	15	00	88	185
2	Perambra-Kanayankode (Kayanankode river)	15	3	4	3	00	00	56	325
3	Elathur-Madanam (Elathur river)	12	2	2	2	30	00	44	200
4	Elathur-Nadavannur (Elathur river)	18	4	8	3	30	00	62	440
5	Feroke-Edavanna (Beypore river)	30	4	4	5	30	1	00	225
6	Tirur-Ponnani (Tirur river)	16	2	8	3	00	00	59	420

3 spans of 130′ each. A proposal for the reconstruction of the bridge is under consideration.

2. *Murat Bridge.*—Located at mile 26|3 of Calicut-Cannanore road, this bridge was constructed in 1940. It is an R.C.C. Bowstring girder bridge with R.C. ornamented hand rails. It has 4 spans of 100′ each.

3. *Feroke Bridge.*—Constructed in 1870, it is located at mile 438|5 Madras-Calicut road. Formerly a railway bridge, it was converted into a road bridge later. It is a steel truss bridge having four spans of 130′ each.

4. *Kuttipuram Bridge.*—Constructed in 1953 and located at mile 17|6 of Edaur-Kuttipuram road, this bridge has 11 spans of 100′ each, with R.C.C. Bowstring girders and ornamental R.C. hand rails.

5. *Korapuzha Bridge.*—Constructed in 1940, it has 4 spans of 100′ each and 3 spans of 64′ each with R.C.C. Bowstring girders and R.C. ornamental hand rails.

In addition to the five major bridges described above three more have been proposed for construction. Their details are given below:

Name	*Location*	*Estimatesd cost* (Rs.)	*Proposed span length*
Karimpuzha bridge	Mile 47/6 of C.N.G. Road	3,32,000	5 spans of 60′ each
Kanayankode bridge	Mile 2/5 of Quilandi-Ulleri Road	10,72,000	6 spans of 100′ each
Kootilangadi bridge	Mile 411/6 of Madras-Calicut Road	7,93,000	5 spans of 60′ each

It may be mentioned in this connection that the Karimpuzha Bridge is expected to be opened for traffic in 1961-62 and the Kanayankode Bridge in 1963-64. The Kootilangadi Bridge is being constructed as a major bridge at the same place where there is already a minor bridge.

Apart from the major bridges a number of minor bridges have been included in the Five Year Plan and they are in various stages of construction. Their details are given below:

Sl.No.	Location	Estimated amount (Rs.)
1.	A bridge at Mile 0/7 of Valayam-Vishnumangalam road	1,54,000
2.	Kanninada Bridge at Mile 5/2 of Badagara-Tiruvattur road	2,95,000
3.	Chettukadavu Bridge at Mile 1/5 of Kunnamangalam-Mukkom road	4,49,200
4.	A bridge across Iruvazhinpuzha near Mukkom on Kunnamangalam-Manjeri road	6,69,500
5.	A bridge at Mile 1/3 of Vayithiri-Poidana road	2,63,000
6.	A bridge at Mile 5/3 of Vayithiri-Poidana road	1,59,500
7.	A bridge at Mile 26/4 of Calicut-Vayithiri-Gudalur road	2,29,000
8.	A bridge at Mile 1/5 of Kaniambetta-Meenangadi road	2,88,000
9.	A bridge at Porakkatteri ferry on Pudiyangadi-Ulleri road	3,69,000
10.	A bridge across Parakkal ferry on Mannur-Kadalundi road	3,29,000
11.	A bridge at mile 0/3 of Ramanattukara-Tirurangadi road section of W. C. road	1,00,500
12.	A bridge at mile 12/3 of Puthanantani-Valancherri road	1,29,800

PORTS

The ports in the District are the Intermediate Port of Calicut including Beypore, and the Minor Port of Badagara.

Calicut Port.—The Port of Calicut situated in Latitude 11°—15′ North Longitude 75°—47′ East on the West Coast of India is 413 miles by rail from Madras and 566 miles south-east of Bombay by sea. It is 42 miles south of Tellicherry and 90 miles north of Cochin. The coast line extends from Elathur Cape (4 miles to the north of the Light House) down to the south bank of the Kadalundi river (9 miles south of the Light House) and trends roughly in a straight line and includes Beypore.

Beypore which was formerly an independent sub-port is now a declared wharf of Calicut and included in it for administrative purposes. It is in Latitude 11° 10′ North Longitude 75° 49′ East and is situated at the mouth and on the right bank of the Beypore river and is approximately 6 miles southward of Calicut.

The Port of Calicut is an open Roadstead with a number of reefs to the south of the anchorage but no piloting is required. Within 2 miles of the coast the sea is shallow and steamers have therefore to anchor outside this limit. Within the port limits 3 rivers meet the sea, namely the Kallai river, the Beypore river and the Kadalundi river. Except for a short period of about one month during the strength of the southward Monsoon rains, the Kallai and Kadalundi rivers are mere backwaters as the Bars close the mouths of the rivers entirely.

The steamer anchorage for the port of Calicut is best with the Light House bearing No. 74° E. in 5 to 5½ fathoms mud (good holding ground). Small coasting steamers anchor close to the buoy. The steamer anchorage in Beypore is with the Beypore flagstaff bearing No. 75° E in 4½ to 5½ fathoms mud but vessels anchor to suit the boats' requirements with regard to the prevailing wind.

Both Calicut and Beypore are open to foreign trade. Calicut port is not completely closed to steamer traffic during South-west Monsoon period but whenever there is heavy rain, steamers do not call as it is an open roadstead. No sailing vessel traffic takes place during the South-west Monsoon period. Aga automatic light exhibited from a white masonry column 52 feet above high water double flash every 6 seconds

and is visible for 12 miles. Morse signalling is in force at Calicut and at Beypore. There are two piers in the Calicut Port known as North pier and South pier. A white painted flag staff is situated opposite to the Port Office building near the North pier. International Code Flag Signalling is done from sunrise to sunset.

The statistics of the number and tonnage of steamers and country crafts that called at the Port of Calicut during the period 1923-60 are given in Appendix II at the end of the Chapter.

Badagara Port.—The location of the port is in Latitude 11° 36′ N. and Longitude 75° 34′ E about 12 miles south of Tellicherry. The port is an open road-stead and is open to foreign trade. But only small coasting steamers call at the port. The best anchorage for steamers is about 1¾ miles from the shore in 4½ to 5 fathoms water with the flag-staff bearing, and the most convenient anchorage when strong north westerly winds prevail during the afternoon is on the following bearings:—

Sacrifice Rock—S 18° N.

Beoffaloc Hump—N 73° E.

In about 4¾ fathoms.

Sailing vessels anchor at a distance of about 3/4 mile from the shore in front of the Port Office. Cargo is handled by Masula (Shore) boats. There is no pier or jetty at this Port. There is a flag signal and Morse Signal station at this Port. A red anchorage 'Aga' light has been fixed on the flag-staff. Character of the light is one flash in every 20 seconds.

A statement showing the number and tonnage of vessels cleared at the Port of Badagara for the period 1956-61 is given in page 429.

TRANSPORT BY AIR

An Air strip for Gwalior Rayons Silk Manufacturing Company Ltd., Calicut, is being set up in the Tenhipalam and Velimukku Villages in Tirur Taluk by the Birlas.* The site comprises of 50.28 acres in Tenhipalam village and 5.70

* The site is locally known as Chelari.

Statement showing the number and tonnage of vessels cleared at the Port of Badagara (1956-61)

Year	Sailing Vessels				Steamers				Cargo imported (tonnage)	Cargo exported (tonnage)
	Entered		Cleared		Entered		Cleared			
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons		
1956-57	15	1,193	15	1,193	49	38,327	49	38,327	1,570	9,442
1957-58	39	3,819	39	3,819	96	75,927	96	75,927	3,923	18,010
1958-59	26	2,741	26	2,741	96	72,368	96	72,368	3,043	16,773
1959-60	31	3,353	31	3,353	124	83,333	124	83,333	16,295	2,948
1960-61	28	3,151	28	3,151	79	47,299	79	47,299	2,941	14,408

acres in Velimukku village. The strip is connected by good road and is about 14 miles south east of Calicut Town. The Main Trunk Road passes by this site. The first trial plane landed at this strip on 29th January 1962.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

Old time rest houses and dharmasalas.—Very little is known about the old time *dharmasalas* and rest houses of the District in spite of the fact that Malabar coast has from time immemorial attracted people from all parts of the world. However, Ibn Batuta in his *'Travels'* observes that at the distance of every half mile "there is a house made of wood in which there are chambers fitted for the reception of comers and goers, whether they be Moslems or infidels. To each of these there is a well, at which they drink, and over each is an infidel appointed to give drink. To the infidels he supplies this in vessels, to the Moslems he pours it in their hands". Thus water *pandals* intended to give relief to the way-worn travellers seem to have been in existence in the past. At the beginning of the century there were 30 choultries in the old District of Malabar, of which eleven were endowed, the endowments consisting of certain *inam* lands in the Ernad Taluk.

Modern Travellers' Bungalows—The place of the old time *dharmasalas* and other institutions is now taken up by the modern Travellers' Bungalows, Rest Houses and Campsheds which are open to all *bona fide* travellers who pay the prescribed fees. They are maintained by the Government in the interest of the travelling public and are in the charge of the Public Works Department. Travellers' Bungalows are classified into two categories according to the nature of the convenience provided. All of them are provided with necessary staff furniture, utensils, crockery and linen. Officers of the Central and State Government on official duty are given the usual concessional rates for their occupation. Accommodation may be reserved for Government officers and other travellers for a period of three days at a time on formal application to the District Collector or the Executive Engineer, as the case may be. The Table giving the list of Rest Houses, Travellers' Bungalows and Campsheds under the control of the Public Works Department in the District together with such details as their location is given in Appendix III.

In addition to the Rest Houses and Travellers' Bungalows maintained by the Public Works Department, there is also a Tourist Bungalow maintained by the Tourist Department at West Hill, Kozhikode. It has spacious rooms and provides comfortable accommodation to tourists. Further the Calicut Municipality maintains a Travellers' Bungalow and a *chatram* in Calicut city.

POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES

The whole of the Kozhikode District except the Tirur Taluk is under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Post Offices, Malabar Division, with headquarters at Calicut. The Post and Telegraph offices in the Tirur Taluk are under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Post Offices, South Malabar Division, Palghat. In addition there is a Central Telegraph Office in Calicut town which is under the control of a separate Superintendent of Telegraphs.

In 1951 at the time of the commencement of the First Five Year Plan the District had one Head Post Office, 39 Sub Post Offices and 288 Branch Offices. The decade 1951-61 witnessed an immense expansion of postal facilities. In 1961 the District had one Head Post Office, 72 Sub Post Offices and 395 Branch Offices. The number of Combined Post and Telegraph Offices came to 53. All Sub Offices are doing Savings Bank transactions. Some important Branch Post Offices are also vested with Savings Bank powers.

Central Telegraph Office, Calicut.—The Central Telegraph Office, Calicut is the only Departmental Telegraph Office in the District. It was opened in September, 1956. It was held in a rented building till March 6, 1957 when it was shifted to a new building constructed by the Department on the Beach Road. The Office is in charge of a Superintendent and the staff strength is 135. It works direct with Madras, Coimbatore Cochin, Trivandrum, Mangalore, Bangalore and 105 Combined Telegraph Offices in Kozhikode, Trichur and Palghat.

TELEPHONES*

The Divisional Engineer, Telegraphs, Calicut is the administrative head of the telephone system in the Kozhikode

* The information given in this section is based on a note supplied by the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department in December 1961.

District. There are seven telephone exchanges in the district viz., Calicut, Badagara, Tirur, Kalpetta, Manjeri, Nilambur and Tamarasseri.

Calicut.—The telephone exchange at Calicut was first opened in 1925 with 50 line Magneto Board. In 1938 the capacity was increased to 150 lines Magneto. In 1946 one T-32 Board was installed to work trunks. In 1948, one T-43 Trunk Exchange with four positions was installed. In 1949 the number of working connections were 283 Main and 83 extensions with three P.B.Xs. In 1950, the number of working connections was 328 Main and 95 extensions and 4 PBXs. In 1952 new cables were laid for an ultimate capacity of 1,000 pairs. The exchange was feminised during the year. Metering was introduced in 1957. In May 1957 a new T-43 Trunk Exchange with 8 regular and 2 record positions was installed. The average number of trunk calls were 1250 and the number of working connections by the end of the year 1958 was 1003 Main and 239 extensions and 10 PBXs. The capacity of the board was increased to 1100. In August 1959, the number of working connections were 1068 Main and 257 extensions. The maximum number of Trunk Calls handled per day came to 1400. The exchange was automatised on May 24, 1960 with a capacity of 1900 lines. At present 1695 Main connections and 327 extensions and 17 PBXs. are working.

Badagara—A 100 line Magneto exchange was first opened at Badagara on July 1, 1948. It was later replaced by a Central Battery 100 line exchange on June 10, 1959. At present 79 main connections and 5 extensions are working.

Tirur.—An auto exchange was opened on March 28, 1957 with 18 connections. Capacity of the exchange has been increased to 100 lines (Auto Exchange) with effect from April 1961. No. of working connections on date is 42 main and 2 extensions.

Kalpetta.—An auto exchange was opened (50 lines) during March 1959 with 26 connections. It was converted into a 100 line CB exchange during February 1960. At present 41 main connections are working.

Manjeri—A small auto exchange with a capacity of 50 lines was opened at Manjeri on March 20, 1961 with 19 working connections. At present 26 main connections are working.

Nilambur.—A small auto exchange with a capacity of 50 lines was opened on March 11, 1960 with 15 working connections. At present 23 connections are working.

Tamarasseri.—A small auto exchange with a capacity of 50 lines was opened on March 31, 1960 with 17 working connections. The present working connection is 18.

The details regarding the type of exchange, the number of working connections etc., are given below:

Telephone Exchanges in Kozhikode District (*1961*)

Name of Exchange	*Type and Capacity of Exchange*		*Working Connections Main*	*Extn.*	*P.C. Local*	*Os. Trunks*
Calicut	MAX	1900	1695	327	14	5
Badagara	CBNM	100	79	5	2	1
Tirur	SAX	100	42	2	1	2
Kalpetta	CBNM	100	41	..	2	6
Manjeri	SAX	50	26	..	1	1
Nilambur	SAX	50	23	..	1	..
Tamarasseri	SAX	50	18	..	1	..

Radio

The District had altogether 5,825 Radio sets in 1959-60. The licenses for the use of radio sets are issued by the local Post Offices on behalf of the Government of India.

Organisations of Owners and Employees.—Several organisations of owners and employees in the field of transport and communications exist in the District. The following are some of the important organisations that function in the District.

1. Bus Owners' Association, Kozhikode.
2. The *Thoni Nirmana* (Boat building) *Thozhilali* Union, Kozhikode.
3. Port Cargo Workers' Union, Vellayil, Kozhikode.
4. C.C. Automobiles Employees' Union, Kozhikode (AITUC).

5. Kozhikode District Motor Transport Workers' Union, Kozhikode (AITUC).
6. *Thoni Thozhilali* Union, Karuvanthuruthu, Feroke (AITUC).
7. Port *Thoni Thozhilali* Union Big Bazaar, Kozhikode.
8. Badagara Port Labour Union, Badagara.
9. Independent Port Workers Union, Badagara.
10. The Boat *Nirmana* (Boat building) *Thozhilali* Union, Beypore, Kozhikode.
11. Bus Stand Chumattu Thozhilali Union, Badagara.
12. Calicut Railway Goods Forwarding and Clearing Employees' Association, Calicut.
13. *Swathanthara Kaivandi Thozhilali* Union, M. A. Road, Calicut.
14. The Malabar Motor Workers' Union, Manjeri (INTUC).
15. Kozhikode *Thuramugha Thozhilali* Union, Halva Bazaar, Kozhikode.
16. State Transport Employees' Union, Kozhikode branch.
17. State Transport Workers' Union, Kozhikode Branch.

APPENDIX—I

Major District Roads maintained by the Public Works Department in Kozhikode District

Sl. No.	Name of the road	Length M	F.	ft.	Metalled or unmetalled
1	Panamaram Edapathy road. 10/2 to 19/4	9	2	0	Metalled
2	Sultan's Battery Nulpuzha road 17/1 to 26/6	9	5	0	do.
3	Vayithiri Pozhuthana Kuthirapandy road. 0/0 to 17/2	17	2	0	do.
4	Perambra Payyoli Road. M. 13/3 to 24/3	11	0	0	do.
5	Perambra Kuttiyadi road.	7	5	0	do.
6	Ulleri Perambra road. 5/4 to 13/3	7	7	0	do.
7	Ulleri Balusseri road. 0/0 to 4/5	4	4	450	do.
8	Quilandi Ulleri road. 0/0 to 5/4	5	4	0	do.
9	Balusseri Tamarasseri road. 15/0 to 22/7	7	7	0	do.
10	Calicut Balusseri road. 3/0 to 15/0	12	0	0	do.
11	Malappuram Tirurangadi Parappanangadi road. M. 0/0 to 18/2	18	2	0	do.
12	Tirur Bettath Pudiyangadi. 26/4 to 28/6.	2	2	0	do.
13	Tanalur Puthanatani Tiruvegapura Valancheri road. 0/0 to 17/0	17	0	0	do.
14	Bettath Pudiyangadi Chamravattam road. 0/0to 5/0	5	0	0	do.
15	Edaur Valancheri Kuttipuram. 8/2 to 17/6	9	3	0	do.
16	Kondotti Ariyakod road. 0/0 to 9/2	9	2	0	do.
17	Naduvattam Beypore road. 2/7 to 6/4	3	5	0	do.
18	Calicut Peruvayal road. 0/7 to 11/0	10	1	0	do.
19	Ariyakod Manjeri road. 9/2 to 18/7	9	5	0	do.
20	Manjeri Olipuzha road. 18/7 to 29/7	11	0	0	do.
21	Trikkalangode Thiruvali. 0/0 to 4/4	4	4	0	do.
22	Edavanna Wandur Kalikavu 0/0 to 14/4	14	4	0	do.
23	Pandikkad Wandur Vadapuram	14	0	0	do.
24	Melattur Karuvarakundu road. 8/6 to 11/6	3	0	0	do.
25	Tirur Malappuram	16	0	0	do.
26	Nilambur Kalikavu Karuvarakundu road. M. 0/0 to 26/7	26	7	0	do.
27	Malappuram Manjeri road	7	4	0	do.
	Total	174	3	450	

APPENDIX—I (*Contd.*)

Minor District Roads maintained by the Public Works Department in Kozhikode District.

Sl. No.	Name of the roads	Length M.	Length F.	Length ft.	Metalled or unmetalled
1	Tirur Pooraparamba road. 18/1 to 26/4	8	3	0	Metalled
2	Manasseri Kunnamangalam road. 31/0 to 29	8	1	330	do.
3	Badagara Valliapally.	3	4	0	do.
4	Kanakamala Nadapuram road. 0/8 to 6/5	5	5	0	do.
5	Chevayur Malaparamba. 0/0 to 20/2	2	2	0	do.
6	Manasseri Mukkom. 0/0 to 1/0	1	0	0	Unmetalled
7	Villiapally Chelakkad.	6	2	0	Metalled
8	Kuttiyadi Wynad road.				Unmetalled
9	Tirurangadi Kondotti road	5	2	0	do.
10	Kondotti Vazhakkad. 0/0 to 7/2	7	2	0	do.
11	Badagara Tiruvallur	6	0	0	Metalled
12	Nadapuram Kuttiadi. 7/2 to 15/0.	7	6	0	do.
13	Kottakkal Puthanatani.	5	2	0	do.
14	Kuttiyadi Pakramthalam.	9	1	0	Unmetalled
15	Ramanattukara Tirurangadi.	8	6	0	do.
16	Klari Tirurangadi.	5	0	0	do.
17	Puthanatani Valancheri.	6	0	0	do.
18	Muttungal Nadapuram. 0/0 to 7/2.	7	2	0	Metalled
19	Kuttiyadi Thottilpalam. 15/0 to 19/0	4	0	0	do.
20	Meppadi Chural Malai road. 0/0 to 8/0	8	0	0	do.
21	Kaniambetta Meenangadi.	8	2	0	do.
22	Naderi Anjampeedika road.	5	4	0	do.
23	Pudiyangadi Ulleri road.	10	4	0	do.
24	Nanminda Kunnamangalam road.	18	2	220	do.
25	Kakkodi Pudiyangadi 2/2 to 450	2	2	450	do.
26	Peruvayal Chathamangalam or Peruvayal Mukkom.	4	5	300	do.
27	Chelannur Edakkara road.	2	0	0	Unmetalled

APPENDIX I—(*contd.*)

Sl. No.	Name of the road	Length M.	Length F.	Length ft.	Metalled or unmetalled
28	Road from Panampuzha Achambalam.	5	2	0	Unmetalled
29	Road from Chaliyam Pooraparamba to Ottummal Fishing Hamlet.	0	5	0	do.
30	Alathiyur Pallikkadavu.	5	4	0	do.
31	Pudiyangadi Mangattiri Paravanna road	2	2	0	do.
32	Vengara Achanambalam.	1	6	0	
33	Parappanangadi Parakkadavu.	1	5	0	
34	Tanur Theyyalingal.	2	4	0	Unmetalled
35	Defunct Tippu Sultan Road from Tanur *Nagaram* to Paravanna Fishing Hamlet.	4	5	0	do.
36	Tirunavayi Kalpakancheri.	5	0	0	Metalled
37	Road to link Pookatiri and Malappuram (up to Dt. Boundary)	3	5	0	Unmetalled
38	Road to link Pookatiri and Railway Station (upto River)	3	5	0	do.
39	Pottammel Kannam Chinnambalam. 0/0 to 3/2	3	2	0	do.
40	Mankavu Kanniparamba road. 0/0 to 8/4	8	4	0	do.
41	Beypore Cheruvannur. 0/0 to 1/6				
42	Kavil Theekuni.	13	0	0	Metalled
43	Ariyakod Edavanna	6	4	0	
44	Kunhipalli Manthol Ferry road.	1	5	0	Unmetalled
45	Panur Parakkadavu road.	1	7	0	Metalled
46	Kallachi Vanimel Velliyode road.	3	2	0	do.
47	Thottilapalam Pakramthalam road. 19/0 to 25/0	6	0	0	Unmetalled
48	Portion of Badagara Thiruvallur Perambra road. (a portion of Thiruvallur to Chenniamkadavu 6/0 to 8/0)	2	0	0	
	Total	248	5	540	

(J) Items 20 to 48 were originally maintained by the Malabar District Board, but they are to be taken over by the Public Works Department following the abolition of the Board.

APPENDIX--I. (Contd.)

Village Roads maintained by Public Works Department in Kozhikode District.

Sl. No.	Name of roads	Length M.	Length F.	Length ft.	Metalled or unmetalled
1	Mayanad Mayaparamba	3	6	250	Unmetalled
2	Approach road to Providence College.	0	5	0	Metalled
3	Kumaraswamy Raja road	5	4	0	Unmetalled
4	Mavur Kanniparamba.	2	4	30	do.
5	Kavil Kurumadi road	.		.	do.
6	Feroke College road.	1	2	0	Metalled
7	Chengottukadavu Ullurkadavu road.	1	6	250	Unmetalled
8	Meppayur Nelliadi Kollam road.	5	5	400	do.
9	Perambra Chembra - Koorachundu road.	7	0	0	do.
10	Chembra Peruvannamuzhi road.	3	1	0	do.
11	Road from Kozhichene to Vailathur.	3	4	0	do.
12	Road from 5/7 of Tanalur Puthanantani road to 6/6 of Tirur Malappuram road.	3	5	0	Metalled
	Total	38	5	330	

Items 7 to 12 were originally maintained by the Malabar District Board, but they are to be taken over by the Public Works Department following the abolition of the Board.

APPENDIX—II.

Vessels entered and Tonnage—Calicut Port (1923-60).

Year	Steamers		Native Crafts		Total Tonnage
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	
July to June					
1923-24	265	7,16,308	1,610	90,140	8,06,448
1924-25	264	6,17,470	1,614	93,810	7,11,280
1925-26	307	6,88,851	1,303	74,097	7,62,948
1926-27	342	7,23,558	1,365	77,692	8,01,250
1927-28	435	9,24,569	1,475	83,990	10,08,559
1928-29	481	9,86,342	1,355	79,496	10,65,838
1929-30	520	9,94,898	1,207	76,738	10,71,636
1930-31	503	9,66,669	1,068	59,755	10,26,424
1931-32	555	10,36,582	1,091	62,957	10,99,569
1932-33	662	12,72,811	977	53,999	13,26,810
1933-34	583	11,63,378	942	56,245	12,19,623
1934-35	621	12,45,240	1,084	65,457	13,10,697
1935-36	707	12,92,414	1,217	72,428	13,64,842
1936-37	646	11,38,716	1,145	68,446	12,07,162
1937-38	533	10,99,743	1,253	75,482	11,75,225
1938-39	490	10,80,077	1,243	75,606	11,55,683
April to March.					
1939-40	391	7,86,695	1,199	71,263	8,57,958
1940-41	197	3,45,105	1,477	87,246	4,32,354
1941-42	97	1,62,353	1,912	1,11,205	2,73,558
1942-43	47	46,723	2,992	1,43,108	1,89,831

APPENDIX II—(contd)

Year	Steamers		Native Crafts		Total Tonnage
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	
July to June.					
1943-44	8	4,480	386	23,907	28,387
1944-45	6	4,090	2,992	1,15,898	1,19,988
1945-46	41	17,827	1,368	1,04,368	1,22,595
1946-47	99	1,61,869	1,186	1,02,828	2,65,697
1947-48	127	2,10,099	1,078	82,327	2,92,426
1948-49	212	3,92,452	1,099	81,058	4,73,510
1949-50	291	3,62,508	1,219	99,491	4,61,999
1950-51	250	3,34,265	1,235	1,05,301	4,39,566
1951-52	283	3,98,676	1,163	1,06,242	5,04,918
1952-53	409	5,34,168	1,366	1,21,432	6,55,600
1953-54	439	6,43,718	1,332	1,21,541	7,65,259
1954-55	328	4,60,464	1,405	1,10,441	5,70,905
1955-56	278	5,08,577	1,617	1,30,318	6,38,890
1956-57	321	5,35,517	1,548	1,33,111	6,68,628
1957-58	276	5,58,501	1,845	1,54,540	7,13,041
1958-59	320	5,50,127	1,931	1,62,486	7,18,613
1959-60	353	6,22,677	1,808	1,63,862	7,86,539

APPENDIX—III

List of Rest Houses, Traveller's Bungalows and Campsheds under the control of the Public Works Department in the Kozhikode District

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the T. B., I. B. etc. (2)	Taluk and place (3)	Location (4)	Nearest Railway Station if any and the distance from it (5)	By whom maintained (6)	Class to which it belongs (7)	Rates charged (8)	Nature of accommodation and facilities provided (9)
							Rs. nP.	
1	T. B. Peruvayal	Kozhikode Peruvayal	M. 10/4 of Calicut Peruvayal road	Kozhikode 11 miles	P.W.D. (R & B)	II Class	1 00 per head a day	No catering arrangements—no flushout latrine—no water supply—not electrified
2	T. B. Kondotti	Ernad, Kondotti	M. 429/0 of Madras Calicut road	Kozhikode 16 miles	do.	do.	1 00	do.
3	T. B Quilandi	Quilandi Quilandi	M. 15/5 of Calicut Cannanore road	Pantalayini 6 furlongs	do.	I Class	2 50 per head a day	No catering— septic tank latrine with hand flushing provided—electrified with ceiling fans.
4	T. B. Payyoli	Quilandi, Payyoli	M. 22/1 of Perambra Palyyoli road	Payyoli 2 miles 4 furlongs	do.	I Class	1 00	No catering—septic tank with hand flushing provided not electrified—kerosene lights provided.
5	Rest House, Perambra	Quilandi, Perambra	M. 13/3 of Perambra Payyoli road	Payyoli 11 miles	do.	do.	1 00	No catering—septic tank with hand flushing provided—not electrified—kerosene lights provided.
6	T. B. Tamarasseri	Kozhikode, Tamarasseri	M. 18/6 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 20 miles	do.	I Class	2 00	No catering—ordinary commodes available—kerosene lights provided —well water available.
7	Inspection Bungalow Vennakkad	Kozhikode Vennakkad	M. 12/2 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 13 1/2 miles	do.	II Class	1 00	No catering—ordinary commodes and kerosene lights provided—well water available.

APPENDIX III—(*Contd.*)

Sl. No.	Name of the T. B. I. B. etc.	Taluk and place	Location	Nearest Railway Station if any and the distance from it	By whom maintained	Class to which it belongs	Rates charged	Nature of accommodation and facilities provided
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
							Rs. nP.	
8	Inspection Bungalow, Puduppadi	Kozhikode, Puduppadi	M. 25/4 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 26 1/2 miles	do.	I Class	2 00	do.
9	Traveller's Bungalow, Manjeri	Ernad, Manjeri	M. 23/3 of Tirur Malappuram road	Melattur 13 miles	do.	do.	2 00	No catering—Flushout latrine provided—well water available—electrification being done—beds, pillows and cots available
10	T. B. Ariyakod	Ernad, Ariyakod	M. 9/2 of Manjeri Ariyakod road	Feroke 12 miles	do	do	2 00	No catering—flushout latrine provided—well water available—kerosene—lights provided—beds, cots and pillows available.
11	T. B. Pand.'.kad	Ernad, Pandikkad	In Pandikkad Town	Melattur 6 miles	do	do	2 00	No catering arrangements—floushout latrine provided—well water available—kerosene lights provided.
12	*Satram*, Manjeri	Ernad, Manjeri	M. 23/4 of Tirur Malappuram road	Nilambur 13 miles	do.	do	2 00	do.
13	T. B. Nilambur	Ernad, Nilambur	M. 45/0 of C. N. G. road	Nilambur 3 miles	do.	do.	2 50	No catering arrangements—floushout latrine provided—well water available—electrified.
14	T. B. Karuvarakundu	Ernad, Malappuram	Karuvarakundu Town in Nilambur K li-kavu Kolaparamba road	Thuvoor 4 1/2 miles	do.	do.	2 00	No catering arrangements—ordinary commodes available—well water available—kerosene lights provided

APPENDIX III—(*contd*)

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the T. B., I. B. etc. (2)	Taluk and place (3)	Location (4)	Nearest Railway Station if any and the distance from it (5)	By whom maintained (6)	Class to which it belongs (7)	Rates charged (8)	Nature of accommodation and facilities provided (9)
							Rs. nP.	
15	*Satram*, Malappuram	Ernad, Malappuram	M. 15/8 of Tirur Malappuram road (right side)	Tirur 16 miles	do.	do.	2 00	No catering arrangements—floushout latrine provided—well water available—kerosene lights provided.
16	Inspection Bungalow, Malappuram	Ernad, Malappuram	M. 412/4 of Madras Calicut road (left side)	Angadipuram 16 miles away	do.	do.	2 00	No catering arrangements—floushout latrine provided—well water available—kerosene lights provided—electrification being done.
17	Inspection Bungalow, Wandur	Ernad, Wandur	At M. 7/4 on Wandur Kalikavu road	Vaniyampalam 24 miles	P.W.D. (R & B)	I Class	2 00	No catering arrangements—floushout latrine provided—well water available—kerosene lights provided.
18	Inspection Bungalow, Kalikavu	Ernad, Kalikavu	M. 13/5 on Nilambur Kalikavu road	Vaniyambalam 4 miles	do.	do.	2 00	do.
19	T. B. Badagara	Badagara, Badagara	M. 29/2 on Calicut Cannanore road	Badagara 1/2 mile	do.	do.	2 50	Catering arrangements available—septic tank latrine available—well water available electrified with ceiling fans.
20	T. B. Kuttiyadi	Badagara, Kuttiyadi	M. 15/3 on Kuttiyadi Pakramthalam road	Nadapuram 15 1/2 miles	do.	II Class	0 75	No catering arrangements provided—septic tank latrine provided—well water available —kerosene lights provided.

APPENDIX—III—(contd.)

Sl. No.	Name of the T. B. I. B. etc.	Taluk and place	Location	Nearest Railway Station if any and the distance from it	By whom maintained	Class to which it belongs	Rates charged	Nature of accommodation and facilities provided
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
							Rs. nP.	
21	Rest House, Kuttipuram	Tirur, Kuttipuram	1 furlong away from Kuttipuram Railway Station	Kuttipuram 1 furlong from Kuttipuram Railway Station	do.	I Class	2 00	No catering arrangements provided—septic tank latrine provided—well water available—kerosene light provided.
22	T. B. Vykattur	Tirur, Vykattur	M. 11/7 on Edaur Kuttipuram road.	Kuttipuram 5 miles	do.		2 00	do.
23	T. B. Tirur	Tirur, Tirur	1 flg. away from Tirur Malappuram road	Tirur 3 flg.	do.	I Class	2 50 per day	No catering arrangements —floushout latrine provided—well water available—electrified.
24	*Satram*, Tanur	Tirur, Tanur	20/8 on Tirur Pooraparamba road	Tanur 1 furlong	do.	II Class	1 00	No catering—ordinary commodes provided—well water available—kerosene lights provided.
25	T. B. Tirurangadi	Tirur, Tirurangadi	M. 14/2 on Malappuram Tirurangadi road	Parappanangadi 4 miles away	do.	I Class	2 00	No catering arrangements —flushout latrine provided well water available—kerosene lights provided.
26	Inspection Bungalow, Lakkidi	S. Wynad, Vayithiri	M. 39/4 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 36 miles	do.	I Class	2 00	No catering arrangements —floushout latrine—river water available—kerosene lights provided.

APPENDIX III—(*contd*)

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the T. B., I. B. etc. (2)	Taluk and place (3)	Location (4)	Nearest Railway Station if any and the distance from it (5)	By whom maintained (6)	Class to which it belongs (7)	Rates charged (8)	Nature of accommodation and facilities provided (9)
							Rs. nP.	
27	T. B. Vayithiri	S. Wynad Vayithiri	M. 39/4 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 39 1/4 miles	do.	I Class	2 0	No catering arrangements—flushout latrine provided—electrified with ceiling fans—well water available.
28	Inspection Bungalow, Meppadi	S. Wynad, Meppadi	M. 49/4 of C. V. G. road	Kozhikode 49 1/2 miles	do.	do.	2 50	do.
29	T. B. Sultan's Battery	S. Wynad, S. Battery	M. 60/4 of C. M. F. road	Nanjankode 58 miles	do.	do.	2 20	Catering arrangements available—flushout latrine provided—tube well provided—kerosene lamps provided.
30	T. B. Ambalavayal	S. Wynad, Ambalavayal	60 miles from Kozhikode (via) Kolgapara	Kozhikode 60 miles	do.	II Class	1 00	No catering arrangements—no flushout latrine—well water available—kerosene lamps provided.
31	Rest House, Nadapuram	Badagara, Nadapuram	M. 6/3 on Kanakamala Nadapuram road	Nadapuram 6 miles	do.	do.	1 00	do.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

There is a paucity of statistical data in regard to the number of persons engaged in miscellaneous occupations in the Kozhikode District. Kozhikode is a new administrative unit and the data given in the *Census Report of 1951* which apply to the erstwhile Malabar District as a whole are not adequate for the purpose of our study. No systematic investigation into the occupational pattern of the District has also been undertaken since 1951. The *Census Report of 1951*, however, gives some statistical information pertaining to persons employed in various occupations in the District Headquarters at Calicut. This information together with such particulars as have been gathered from local enquiries in the course of the compilation of this Gazetteer are given in this Chapter.

Public Administration

Calicut city is one of the three cities of the State. Once the capital of the Zamorin Rajas and the headquarters of the erstwhile Malabar District, it is to-day the headquarters of the Kozhikode District. Having been thus a seat of administration for centuries many public offices have all along been functioning here. The total number of persons engaged in public administration in Calicut according to the Census of 1951 comes to 1,731 of which 1,655 are males and 76 are females. Out of this, 1,006 were employees of the State Government, 30 employees of Union Government, 213 employees of Municipalities and Local Boards, 26 village officers and servants, and 456 Police employees other than village watchmen. The statistical data for 1951 given above can have no relevance to the present context of life in the city. It is beyond doubt that there has been a considerable increase in the number of persons engaged in public administration in Calicut during the last decade. It is seen from the Report on Employment in Public Sector (Kerala) issued by the Directorate of National Employment Service, Trivandrum, that in September 1961

there were 20915 persons employed in the public sector in the Kozhikode District. This figure includes employees of the Central and State Government offices and Quasi-Government institutions. The figures supplied by the Municipalities of the District in May 1961 show that about 1,000 people were employed in their service. Of these 942 were employed under the Calicut Municipality and 58 under the Badagara Municipality.

The persons employed in public administration enjoy certain amenities and privileges which are shared by their compeers in other Districts of the State as well. In addition to their basic pay all Government servants are given Dearness Allowance and House Rent Allowance. Those employed in South Wynad get unhealthy locality allowance ranging from Rs. 54 per mensem for the Tahsildar to Rs. 9 per mensem for the Peon. Housing is an acute problem in Calicut city and other urban areas of the District, and the vast majority of public employees have therefore to spend a considerable portion of their emoluments on house rent. Considering the difficulty experienced by the public servants in getting suitable residential accommodation at reasonable rates of rent the Government have taken steps either to provide them with living quarters or loans to build their own houses. Important officers including the District Collector are given Government quarters. In some of the centres like Malappuram and Vayithiri also there are Government quarters for certain officers. The members of the Malabar Special Police are provided with their own quarters at Malappuram and other centres. At Vayithiri the Tahsildar, the Circle Inspector of Police, the Sub-Registrar and the Sub-Inspector of Police are provided with Government quarters, but no such quarters are provided for any of the Non-Gazetted Officers in this Taluk Headquarters. Quarters have been provided also for the members of the staff of the Medical College at Calicut. In spite of such facilities provided for a cross section of the public employees the housing problem is still a serious one.

Public servants in the District have formed their own organisations to discuss matters of common interest and ventilate their grievances. The following are some of the organisations of public employees in Kozhikode:—*North Kerala* N.G.O. Association, Kozhikode, North Kerala Non-gazetted Graduates Association, Kozhikode, All Malabar Village Officers

Association, North Kerala Gram Sevaks Association, Kozhikode, Public Health Entomological Assistants' Association Malabar area, Kozhikode, South Wynad N. G. O. Unit, Vayithiri. Veterinary Assistant Surgeons' Association, Malabar, Kozhikode, Allotted Gazetted Officers Association, Kozhikode, Kerala Last Grade Employees Union, Kozhikode, Gazetted Forest Officers Association, Kozhikode, the Work Charged Establishment Association Kozhikode, Nurses Association Kozhikode, etc.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

The most important of the learned professions are those of the Teachers, Doctors, Lawyers, Engineers and Journalists. We may consider the place of each one of these professions in the life of the District.

Teachers

The *District Census Hand Book* for Malabar (1951) gives the following figures in regard to the number of persons employed in educational services and research in Calicut city alone.

	Male	*Female*
Employers	..	..
Employees	876	321
Independent workers	52	8
Total	928	329

Since the Census of 1951 Calicut city and the District as a whole have made giant strides in the field of education. Calicut has developed into a great educational centre with a University Centre, about a dozen Colleges and a large number of schools located in and around the city. Consequently the number and importance of persons engaged in education have considerably increased in recent times. In 1958-59 there were 14,018 teachers employed in the schools and colleges of the District. Out of this 230 were Professors and Lecturers of Colleges including the Medical College, Kozhikode. The total number of persons employed as teachers in the Secondary Schools in the District came to 932 during the same period. In addition to this 1,277 teachers were employed in Basic Training Schools, Special Schools and Basic Schools. The largest number of

teachers was, however, employed in the Primary Schools, their number being 10,571. It may be mentioned here that the scales of pay and service conditions of teachers in Government and Private Schools in Kerala have recently been made almost uniform by the Government of Kerala. The salaries of all teachers, whether they are employed in Government schools or private schools, are paid directly from the Government Treasury.

In the Kozhikode District the teachers have had their own organisations. A well-knit organisation of the Government aided elementary school teachers was formed in the nineteen thirties when the political movement was at its height. It was led by the Leftists who were then strong in the Kerala Provincial Congress. The object of the organisation was to get the grievances of the teachers in regard to emoluments, service conditions, etc., redressed at the hands of the Government by having recourse to collective action. There are influential teachers' organisations in the District at present also e.g. Kozhikode Government Primary Teachers' Union, Kozhikode, the District Aided Secondary School Teachers' Association, Kozhikode and Government Secondary School Teachers' Union, Malabar.

Doctors

In the Kozhikode District are found doctors practising both the western and eastern systems of medicine. According to the *District Census Hand Book* (1951) there were 36 employers, 349 employees and 289 independent workers engaged in medical and health services in the Calicut city. This includes not only the staff employed by the State Government and local bodies but also private doctors, midwives, compounders and nurses. The latest figures relating to those engaged in medical and health services in the Kozhikode District are not available. From the report of the District Medical Officer it is seen that 39 doctors were employed under the Health Services Department in 1960 and that the number of doctors in the Medical College Hospital was 39. No reliable figures are available in regard tc the Homoeopathic, Unani and Ayurvedic physicians. In view of the wide popularity of the Ayurvedic system of medicine it can be safely assumed that the number of Ayurvedic physicians in the District may be many times higher than that of Doctors who practise Allopathy. The Minimum Wages Committee for Shops and Establishments

(1958) estimated that the average monthly earnings of an Ayurvedic *Vaidyan* in Kozhikode District range from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500. It may be noted in this connection that the reputed Kottakkal Arya Vaidyasala and the Ayurveda College attached to it are situated 8 miles away from the Tirur Railway Station. The existence of these institutions contributes to the increase in the number of qualified Ayurvedic physicians in the District every year.

The members of the medical profession in Kozhikode have formed their own organisations. The Kozhikode branch of the "Indian Medical Association" which was formed as early as 1931 functions with its headquarters at Calicut. It had 72 members on its rolls in 1958-59. Since then the membership has gone up by additions from among the members of the staff of the Kozhikode Medical College. The Ayurvedic physicians have also their own Associations, e.g the All Kerala Ayurvedic Congress, Kozhikode, and the Arya Vaidya Samajam, Kottakkal. The Kerala Homoeopathic Society, Kozhikode, is an organisation devoted to the promotion of homoeopathic science and treatment, and the protection of the interests of those engaged in the practice of Homoeopathy. The subordinate staff of nurses, compounders, midwives etc., employed in the various hospitals have also their own Associations, e.g. the Nurses Association, Kozhikode, the Mental Hospital Workers Union, Kozhikode, and the Malabar Government Hospital Workers Union, Kozhikode.

Lawyers

The legal profession in the Kozhikode District is not so numerous as in the Trivandrum or Ernakulam Districts. This phenomenon may easily be explained by the absence of a Law College at Calicut or in any other part of the erstwhile Malabar area. However, as in other districts lawyers have always played a prominent role in all walks of life here also. The lawyers of Calicut have been in the vanguard of the political movement in the State. The *Malabar District Census Handbook* (1951) shows that there were in Calicut city 170 persons including one woman who held Degrees or Diplomas in law. This number must certainly have registered an increase in the course of the last decade. According to the information supplied by the Registrar, Kerala High Court there were 270 legal practitioners in this District in 1958-59, of whom 222 were advocates of the Kerala High Court.

Engineers

According to the *Malabar District Census Hand Book* (1951) there were 40 Engineering Degree or Diploma holders in the Calicut city in that year. Reliable figures of the total number of Engineers employed at present by Government and private concerns in Calicut city and the District are not available. It is, however, learnt that the total number of Engineers employed in Government Departments like the Public Works Department, the Public Health Engineering Department and the Electricity Board in the Kozhikode District is 142. Under the Public Works Department there are 35 Engineers in the Buildings and Roads Division, 30 in the Irrigation Division, 19 in the Bridges Division, and 14 in the Sepecial Buildings Division. There are 6 in the Public Health Engineering Department and 38 in the Electricity Board. In addition to the above, there are many Engineers who are on the staff of the Regional Engineering College at Kozhikode, and also of the Kozhikode Polytechnic.

There are two Associations of Engineers functioning actively in this District—the Association of Engineers, Kerala P.W.D. and the Transferred Engineers Association. The former which functions with headquarters at Trivandrum is a State-wide organisation of the Engineers of Kerala State. The Engineers belonging to the former Travancore-Cochin cadre in this District are active members of this Association. The Transferred Engineers Association which functions with headquarters at Malampuzha (Palghat District) has as its objective the safeguarding of the service interests of the erstwhile Madras personnel. The Engineers who were allotted to Kerala service from Madras State and who stand out of the Kerala Association of Engineers are therefore the active members of this Association in this District.

Journalists

The working Journalists form a significant group among the miscellaneous occupations of the District, though they are almost confined to Calicut city. The editorial and reporting staff of the 6 Newspapers published from Calicut are members of the Kozhikode Branch of the "Kerala Union of Working Journalists". Of the 50 working journalists in Kozhikode 40 are members of the Union.

Domestic and Personal Services

Before we proceed to discuss the number and importance of persons engaged in domestic and personal services, we may consider the 1951 census figures of persons employed in Calicut City in what are called "Services not elsewhere specified" in the Census Classification of that year. This division includes all domestic services such as cooks, cleaners, car drivers, gardeners and domestic servants as well as such other sub-divisions as barbers and beauty shops, laundries and laundry services, hotels, restaurants and eating houses, recreation services (which include Cinema theatres, music concerts etc.) legal and business services, arts, letters and journalism and religious, charitable and welfare services. There is also in this division a residuary sub-division called "Services otherwise unclassified" under which are enumerated large numbers of persons engaged in other miscellaneous services. The *Malabar District Census Hand Book* 1951 gives the following figures of the total number of persons engaged in "Services not elsewhere specified" within the limits of Calicut city.

	Male.	*Female.*
Employers	304	7
Employees	9,781	1,969
Independent workers	1,078	68
Total	11,163	2,044

The break-up figures of persons engaged in the various sub-divisions under these services are given below.

Occupations.	*Male.*	*Female.*
1. Domestic Services.		
Employers	..	..
Employees	773	968
Independent workers	..	..
Total	773	968

Occupations.	*Male.*	*Female.*
2. Barbers and beauty shops.		
Employers	16	..
Employees	87	2
Independent workers	213	3
Total	316	5
3. Laundries and Laundry Services.		
Employers	7	3
Employees	88	34
Independent workers	88	5
Total	183	42
4. Hotels, restaurants and eating houses.		
Employers	227	4
Employees	834	35
Independent workers	316	12
Total	1,377	51
5. Recreation services.		
Employers	3	..
Employees	102	5
Independent workers	31	..
Total	136	5
6. Legal and business services.		
Employers	3	..
Employees	824	17
Independent workers	125	3
Total	952	20

	Occupations	Male	Female
7.	Arts, letters and journalism.		
	Employers	4	..
	Employees	25	1
	Independent workers	4	..
	Total	33	1
8.	Religious, Charitable and Welfare services.		
	Employers	..	..
	Employees	107	11
	Independent workers	48	16
	Total	155	27
9.	Services otherwise unclassified.		
	Employers	44	..
	Employees	6,941	896
	Independent workers	253	29
	Total	7,238	925

Domestic Servants

A fairly large number of people are engaged in domestic service as almost all well-to-do families in the District employ domestic servants. Only persons belonging to the poorer sections of the community who fail to find employment elsewhere come forward to work as domestic servants. As it is almost difficult to get suitable persons for employment as domestic servants, their services are in great demand. Persons with little or no education who are prepared to do domestic work are therefore never disappointed in finding jobs as domestic servants. Domestic servants usually get an average monthly wage of Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 in addition to their meals. Women constitute a major section among them. It is seen that out of 1,741 persons employed in domestic service in Calicut city during the Census of 1951, 968 were women. Sometimes a domestic servant may be employed part-time by more than one householder. But the rich and the upper middle class usually employ one or more full-time servants. A section of the women servants usually return home at dusk after the day's work is over.

Barbers

The traditional barbers of the District are the *Vilakkatalavans*. In olden days they used to go to each house in the locality to render their service and were paid in kind. They were even expected to take part in certain religious functions. The old order has now changed and the barbers have established their shops both in the urban and rural areas. Except in rare cases they now attend to their clients only in their shops. In the villages and most of the non-Municipal towns barbers in their shops are assisted by the male members of their family and there are very few cases of hired labour. It is a feature of this profession that the vast majority of those engaged in it are independent workers. The *Malabar District Census Hand Book* (1951) reveals that out of 321 persons engaged in this profession in Calicut city 16 were employers, 89 employees and 216 independent workers. The charge for a hair cut for an adult in the mofussil areas including non-municipal towns is about 50 nP. and that for a shave is 12 nP. In Badagara Municipality the charge for an hair cut with shave is 75 nP. and in Calicut city the charge is a little higher than that in Badagara. In Calicut city there are a large number of barber shops with modern equipments and facilities. The owners of such shops employ hired labour and supervise the work. The hired workers in barber shops get a daily or weekly wage. The monthly earnings of this class of barbers range from Rs. 22.50 to Rs. 50 in Panchayats, Rs. 22.50 to Rs. 105 in Municipalities and Rs. 25 to Rs. 120 in the District Headquarters. The State Government have prescribed a minimum monthly wage of Rs. 50 for them under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act 1948 with effect from January 1, 1961. The barber community which has been educationally and economically backward has progressed with time and its members make use of the newly acquired opportunities to get themselves educated.

Washermen

The hereditary washermen of the District are the Veluthedans. As the people generally devote great attention to personal hygiene the services of washermen are indispensable to them. Till quite recently the washermen used to visit houses and they were paid in kind for the service rendered. However, as a result of the impact of western civilization washermen have begun to be remunerated in cash and laundries have come

to be set up in almost every part of the District. In Calicut city and other municipal and non-municipal towns there are a large number of laundries, though such establishments are not a common feature of the rural areas. During the Census of 1951 it was noted that there were 225 persons engaged in laundries and laundry services in Calicut city. In the laundries of the villages washing and ironing are done by the owner himself assisted by the other members of his family, washing being done particularly by women. Laundries of the urban areas are better equipped and the owners of such shops have also to employ hired labourers due to the increase in the volume of business. Such hired workers help in both washing and ironing. To these workers the Government have prescribed a minimum monthly wage of Rs. 45 under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act 1948 with effect from January 1, 1961. Washing charge per 100 pieces in the rural areas varies from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 and in urban areas from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15, the time taken for the service ranging from 1 week to 10 days or even more. The charge for what is called 'urgent wash' is always higher than that for ordinary wash both in towns and villages. Washermen along with those engaged in other personal services have benefited considerably from the growing urbanisation.

Tailors

Many independent tailors with their sewing machines can be found all over the District. In small shops the merchant accommodates a tailor or two in a corner of his shop. Tailors are also employed by shop keepers who do business in ready made clothes. There are also individual tailors who do small scale business in ready made clothes. Tailoring shops are a common feature of the urban areas. The Census of 1951 revealed that there were 63 tailoring establishments in Calicut city. 180 persons were employed in these establishments and all of them were males. It is not common for women to work openly in the tailoring shops, though tailoring is done by young ladies in their houses. The tailoring profession has been a prospering one. There has been in recent times an increase in the number and variety of garments to be cut and stitched. This is due to the higher standards of dress adopted by the people and the changing fashions of the day. Master tailors unable to do all the work themselves engage assistants whose wage rates range from about Rs. 20 to Rs. 80 in Panchayats, Rs. 20 to Rs. 105 in Municipalities and Rs. 20 to Rs. 125

in the District Headquarters. For these hired tailors the Government have prescribed a minimum monthly wage of Rs. 50 under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act 1948. Tailoring charges differ according to the type of stitching and the texture of the cloth. Tailoring charge for a shirt varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 2. Charges are usually higher in towns than in the rural areas. The charge is also higher in the case of clothes of finer texture. The individual tailor is not in a position to save any substantial amount of money after meeting his expenses. Tailors except owners of big tailoring establishments have not come up to any high economic or social position.

Hoteliers

Among the miscellaneous occupations of the District may also be mentioned those employed in the catering trade. With the growth of industrialisation and urbanisation hotels and restaurants have sprung up in almost every part of the District in the place of the old inns or private homes run by the housewives. The introduction of prohibition has also given a fillip to the catering trade, the tea shop having become the successor to the toddy shop. The *Malabar District Census Hand Book* (1951) shows that in Calicut city there were 554 Hotels employing 721 persons. These hotels play an important part in the life of the people of Calicut. A large number of industrial workers, officials, college students, business-men and tourists in the city depend upon hotels and restaurants for their meals. Moreover, the lack of housing facilities on a reasonable rent also compels a large number of office goers and other employees to live and eat in hotels. The employees of hotels belong to different categories such as managers, cooks, tea-makers, suppliers, grinders, water-men, cleaners, accountants, etc. The Minimum Wages Committee for Shops and Establishments which enquired into the general conditions of the employees in the catering trade found that the wages paid to them were generally low and that consequently there was a tendency on the part of the workers to migrate from one establishment to another. It was found that there was a general complaint from the hotel owners and their associations that the hotel workers do not stick to their jobs and that they treat their employment in one establishment only as a stepping stone for better employment elsewhere. The practice of frequently changing establishments is however

confined to workers employed in the lower type of hotels or the lowest paid categories of the workers like suppliers and cleaners. With a view to checking this unhealthy trend in the industry the Committee (1958-1959) recommended minimum wages for the different categories of employees. The wage rates prevailing among the different categories of Hotel employees in Calicut city in 1960 and the minimum wages prescribed by the Government for them under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act with effect from January 1, 1961 are given below:—

Categories of workers employed	*Existing monthly rates Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Other amenities*	*Minimum wage rate prescribed*[1]
Manager	30	200		30
Cook	25	84		30
Tea-maker	20	41	Meals, Beedi Cash of 2 As.	27
Supplier	15	45	Washing Charges	27
Grinders	25	50	shaving and	
Water-man	8	20	hair cutting	20
Cleaner	5	15	charges and	20
			dress	20

1. In addition to these wages the employees are to be supplied food free of cost.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Livelihood pattern

In the Census of 1951 the general population was divided into two broad livelihood categories, namely, Agricultural classes and Non-Agricultural classes. Each of these classes was sub-divided into four groups. The number and percentage of persons in each of the groups in the Kozhikode District as at present constituted are given in Table I.

TABLE I

Distribution of population according to livelihood categories. (1951 Census)[1]

Agricultural.	*Number.*	*Percentage.*
1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents	150287	7.28
2. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly un-owned and their dependents	429178	20.78
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependents	475290	23.01
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, Agricultural rent receivers and their dependents	26511	1.29
Non-Agricultural.		
5. Production other than cultivation	328967	15.93
6. Commerce	197082	9.54
7. Transport	59099	2.86
8. Other Services and miscellaneous sources	398870	19.31

It may be seen from the above table that 52.36 percent of the population of the District fall under agricultural classes,

1. The figures are estimates based on the 1951 Census.

and that the remaining 47.64 percent are non-agriculturists. The all-India average of agriculturists and non-agriculturists according to the Census figures of 1951 is 68.1% and 31.9% respectively while the average for Kerala is 53.6% and 46.4% respectively. Whereas Kerala has the highest percentage of non-agricultural population in the whole of India, the percentage for the Kozhikode district is slightly higher than the State average. It may however be noted that this phenomenon is not due to any reduced importance of the agricultural sector or predominance of the industrial sector in the economy of the State. On the other hand it is the result of the scarcity of land and the great pressure of population on land in this state. This view is testified to by the fact that about 53% of the regional income of Kerala is generated in the agricultural sector.

Self supporting persons falling within the non-agricultural classes have been divided into three groups, viz. Employers, Employees and Independent workers. Table II gives the estimate of the number of employers, employees and independent workers in Industries and Services (non-agricultural) in the Kozhikode District, as per the 1951 Census.

TABLE II

Employers, Employees and Independent workers in Industries and Services (non-agricultural) according to the 1951 Census.[1]

	Male.	*Female.*
Employers	6262	400
Employees	133467	25366
Independent workers	74759	10573
Total	214488	36339
Grand total	250827	

It may be interesting in this connection to consider separately the livelihood pattern of the population of Calicut city as revealed in the 1951 Census Report. Out of a total population of 158724, 4421 belong to the agricultural class and 154303 to the non-agricultural class. The percentage of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits in the city is negligible because Calicut is essentially a commercial and industrial

1. The figures are only estimates based on the 1951 Census.

centre. The details of the distribution of population in the various livelihood classes and sub-classes in the city are given in Table III.

Table IV gives the estimates of the number of Employers, Employees and Independent workers in Industries and Services (non-agricultural) in Calicut city. (1951 Census).

TABLE IV

Employers, Employees and Independent workers in Industries and Services (non-agricultural) in Calicut city.

	Male.	*Female.*
Employers	2087	94
Employees	26673	3707
Independent workers	8228	617
Total	36988	4418
Grand total	41406	

STANDARD OF LIVING AND GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES AND WAGES

General economic condition up to the beginning of this Century

We do not have much detailed information about the economic condition of the District prior to 1900 A.D. Nevertheless, there are a few stray references to the condition of the old Malabar ryot in some of the publications of the 19th century. John Buchanan who visited the District in 1800—01 under specific instructions from Lord Wellesly, the Governor General of India, to enquire into the economic condition of the people and the state of their agriculture and manufactures, makes some interesting observations about the economic condition of the District. He reached Venkatakotta (Kottakkal) on the 22nd December 1800 and found the valleys beautiful and the declivities of the hills formed into terraces for cultivation but the summits of the ridges were waste. The cultivators of the area complained of the high incidence of land tax. "Every evil in Malabar is ascribed to that as its source". Agriculture was in a state of neglect owing to the want of people and the poverty of those who lived in the area. The sea coast was, however, filled with highly productive

TABLE—III

Livelihood Pattern Calicut City. (1951 Census)

Sl. No.	Livelihood class	*Self-supporting persons*		*Non-earning dependants*		*Earning dependants*	
		Males	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*
	Agricultural.						
1.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants	136	23	243	364	43	5
2.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants	152	41	342	630	29	3
3.	Cultivating labourers and their dependants	62	6	75	144	10	..
4.	Non-cultivating owners of lands, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants	747	229	286	845	3	3
		1097	299	946	1983	85	11
	Non-agricultural.						
5.	Production other than cultivation	10,102	1,292	9,234	18,070	332	213
6.	Commerce	7,993	350	9,999	16,985	249	93
7.	Transport	3,534	34	2,703	5,035	88	32
8.	Other services and Miscellaneous sources	15,888	2,940	17,313	31,012	506	306
		37,517	4,616	39,249	71,102	1,175	644

Source. Malabar District *Census Handbook* 1951

coconut gardens. Buchanan reached Calicut, the District Headquarters, on Christmas day. Here he was impressed by the efforts of Mr. Torin the Commercial Resident to establish the Handloom industry at the place. He made estimates of the produce, rental, and land tax of the neighbourhood with the following results for a field of poor quality.

Land tax	£ 0	12	9½
Charges of collection	0	1	3¼
Seed	0	9	4½
Expense of cultivation	0	9	4½
Landlord	0	1	11
Interest of money advanced	0	1	0¾
Cultivator	0	7	8
	£ 2	3	5½

In other words the gross land tax was approximately 14s. The expenses of cultivation came to 19s. and the owners of the land retained only 10s. For a field of the best quality the results were as follows.

Land Tax and collection charges	£ 0	16	10
Seed	0	9	4½
Expense of cultivation	0	9	4½
Interest	0	1	0¾
Landlord	0	8	6¼
Cultivator	1	5	6¾
	£ 3	10	8¾

In other words the land tax was approximately 17s the expenses of cultivation came to 19s and the owners of the land had £1 and 14s.

On the first of January 1801 Dr. Buchanan reached Tamarasseri. Here he found that all the lands had come into the hands of the Mappila mortgagees. Owing to the persecution of the Hindus by Tipu Sultan and the warlike activities of the Mappilas 1|4th of the rice land of Kurumbranad was lying waste and overgrown with forest trees. Some great farmers had 10 ploughs, 20 oxen, 20 male and female slaves, 10 servants and 25 milch cows, but the number of such farmers was small. Male slaves were sold at the low price of

9s 6½d to 28s 8d and women slaves at half the price. The Collector Mr. Coward who accompanied Dr. Buchanan was of opinion that one-fourth of the District was capable of irrigation and rice cultivation, about one-half was high ground fit for dry grains or plantation, and the remainder was steep and rocky. "Mr. Coward thinks the land tax so high that it impedes agriculture". On 5th January, Dr. Buchanan proceeded to Kuttipuram where he found that the land tax was 40%, the landlord kept 27% and the cultivator 33% of the produce.

About the middle of the 19th century Malabar was in a state of comparative prosperity. In 1854 the Government of India appointed a Commission to enquire into the alleged practice of torture for the realisation of Government revenue in the province of Madras. One thing which impressed the Commission during their inquiry all over the Province was that land was severely assessed, and that cases of torture were frequent. However, in Malabar they found a different picture. "In Canara and Malabar," the Commission wrote "we learn that the land tax is generally light, that the people are flourishing the assessment easily and even cheerfully paid, the struggle more often being who shall be allowed than who shall be made to pay the Government dues. Land has acquired a saleable value, and allotments of waste are eagerly contended for. Who can be surprised then at hearing one and all the European dwellers in those favoured spots declare that there torture for revenue purposes is comparatively unknown".[1]

The Malabar District Gazetteer gives us an account of the general economic condition of the agricultural classes in Malabar at the beginning of this century, and it may be reproduced here with profit.[2] "The economic position of the agricultural classes in Malabar, which number two-thirds of the total population, can hardly be judged by the ordinary standard adopted elsewhere. The ryotwari districts on the east coast were in most cases surveyed and settled many years ago, and their material progress can be gauged by comparing the increase of occupied area with the increase of population; they are mainly grain producing districts, and the average production of food per head of population now and many years ago can be estimated with some accuracy. In Malabar, all that is known is that prices rose steadily in the

1. *Economic History of India*, R. C. Dutt, Vol. II, p. 55.
2. *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 228-229.

nineteenth century. The district is largely a horticultural one, and as its area was ascertained only a few years ago by professional survey, it is impossible to say whether its production of food is keeping pace with the increase of population. Thousands of acres are shown as cultivable waste, and the inference is that there is room for a great extension of cultivation; but a large part of the "cultivable waste" is really uncultivable, and much of the rest is modan and punam land cultivated once in two or three years and then left fallow, but treated as unoccupied for settlement purposes. Again, in Malabar excluding the Wynad, the average agricultural holding measures 6.43 acres, compared with 7.35 in the rest of the Presidency; and 75 percent of the pattadars pay an assessment of ten rupees or less, and together pay less than twelve per cent of the land revenue of the district, while for the rest of the Presidency the figures are 66 and 19, respectively. But it is not to be inferred from this that there are more petty proprietors in Malabar than elsewhere; the value of an acre of occupied land is higher than the average, and the number of pattas includes many issued for house sites to persons who do not belong to the agricultural class. Moreover, the desam, which is the unit for the issue of pattas, is usually smaller than the east coast village, and even small pattadars often hold lands in more than one desam."

"The general prosperity of the country is obvious. The rainfall is unfailing and famine is unknown. The soil is naturally fertile, and no one who travels by the South Indian Railway through the Palghat Gap can fail to be struck by the contrast between the arid plains and treeless wastes of the Carnatic and the rich paddy fields and luxuriant gardens of Malabar. The revenue is collected without difficulty, and the general standard of comfort is comparatively high. But a large proportion of the land is concentrated in the hands of a small class, and the welfare of the agricultural community depends largely upon the relations between landlord and tenant."

Prices.

In Malabar the prices of agricultural commodities rose steadily in the 19th century and this contributed to the general prosperity of the cultivating classes. The following extract from Logan's *Malabar Manual* might be of interest in this context. "Prices which were abnormally low just then rose

in 1831-32 to about fifteen per cent after the setting in of the rains. In the following year they again rose twelve per cent. Prices were again higher in 1833-34. Next year grain prices were a little lower, but garden produce more than maintained its position. The year following grain prices again fell, but garden produce prices were maintained. In 1836-37 grain quite recovered its position and garden produce fell considerably. In 1837-38 grain prices were maintained, while garden produce fully recovered its previous good position. And so it went on. There occurred a marked all round rise in the five years 1852-53 to 1856-57, and a still more marked rise all round in the three following years 1857-58 to 1859-60."[1] Logan further observes that "high prices of produce are like a high flood-tide, submerging all inequalities of assessments, as rocks are submerged by the tidal wave. It is only when the tide recedes that the rocks are laid bare. Since 1832 a high flood of prices has set in which as yet shows no sign of ebbing. The district records show that prices ran very low in 1828-31, so much so that there was in 1830-31 some fear that Mr. Graeme's commutation rates for gardens would prove too high. Mr. Hudleston the Principal Collector, in 1830-31 had to give no less than Rs. 69,317 as remissions on gardens. This, however, was the turning point. The flood of high prices began after the setting in of the rains in 1831-32, and with some intermissions it has continued ever since. Perhaps the greatest permanent increase since 1822 took place in, and just after, the five years ending 1856-57."[2] The following table throws light on the price situation of this time.[3]

	Paddy per Garce	*Gingelly per Garce*	*Coconuts per* 1,000	*Pepper per Candy* 560 lb.	*Coffee per Candy* 560 lb.	*Green Ginger per Candy* 560 lb.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Average of 5 years ending 1851-52	78	266	12	51	75	11
Average of 5 years ending 1855-57	108	311	16	85	98	21
1857-58	149	392	21	100	130	23
1858-59	166	407	22	95	121	25
1859-60	197	..	..	..	..	..

1. *Malabar Manual* Vol. I, p. 614.
2. *Malabar Manual* Vol. I, p. 718.
3. *Malabar Manual* Vol. I, p. 718.

Logan's Manual also gives us detailed information regarding the prices of some of the essential commodities like rice, gingelly seed, coconuts, and arecas in all the Taluks of the erstwhile Malabar District during the period 1860-1880. The relevant price statistics of these commodities for the Taluks of Kurumbranad, Wynad, Calicut and Ernad are given in Tables A, B, C and D at Appendix I to this Chapter as they are relevant to our study of the general level of prices in the District under review.

One of the most significant economic trends since the turn of this century is the upward rise in the prices of agricultural products. The price level rose much higher than in the preceding century and this had immediate favourable effects on the economic position of the bulk of the agriculturists of the District. During the first World War and after the upward trends in the price situation were accentuated and prices of almost all agricultural commodities rose faster than ever before. *The Malabar District Gazetteer* gives us the prices of such commodities as rice, horse-gram, ragi and salt in certain select centres of the Malabar District for the period from 1916-17 to 1930-31. The Table at Appendix II reproduced from the *Gazetteer* gives the prices in seers per Rupee for each of these commodities in Calicut, Kurumbranad, Ernad, Quilandi, Manjeri, Tirurangadi and Vayittiri. It is clear from this Table that the general price level was steadily going up during the war and post-war periods. This rise in the price level did not last long. The general economic depression of the early thirties which adversely affected the prevailing economic growth throughout the world hit this area also. Commencing from 1929 there was a devastating fall in commodity prices which hit the agricultural population extremely hard. The Table at Appendix II will also convey an idea of this heavy fall in agricultural prices since 1929. It may be noted that the fall in prices was not accompanied by a corresponding fall in agricultural costs. Several items of cost such as land revenue and interest charges were inelastic and could not be brought down. Suspensions and remissions of land revenue were granted by the Government on a generous scale, but these steps were not adequate enough to meet the situation. The cultivators could no longer meet their monetary liabilities. By 1933-34 the money income of the average ryot

had been reduced by half when compared to that of 1929-30.[1] The burden of indebtedness had practically doubled.[2] Most of the cultivators lost their holdings to their creditors while some of them fell irretrievably into the clutches of the money lenders. Many utilised their capital resources to supplement their income and maintain their standard of life. In the later thirties prices began to improve, and there were signs of a general revival from the Depression. The recovery was, however, slow. The Congress Ministry which came to power in Madras in 1937 planned or undertook legislative measures to reduce the agriculturist's burden of debt. But the Ministry was shortlived and went out of office in 1939 following the outbreak of World War II.

The condtions created by the World War resulted in a rise in the prices of agricultural commodities, but the agriculturists did not receive any substantial benefit from this rise as the cost of production also went up with the prices. The lack of imports of essential food grains which led to a shortage of food supplies was a significant factor which contributed to the increase in the price level during this period. Throughout the Second World War the price level continued to register an upward trend. And even after the end of the war there was no fall in the level of prices. On the other hand the tendency was for the prices to shoot up further.

The cost of living index numbers are an indication of the general level of prices. The figures for Calicut City show a steady upward trend in the price level during the last two decades. The cost of living index numbers for Calicut city for each of the years from 1941 to 1961 with June 1936 as base are given in Table V.

TABLE V

Cost of living Index for Calicut City 1941-1961.

Year.	*Index Numbers.*
1941	119
1942	150
1943	213
1944	232
1945	258
1946	281
1947	331

1. *Monograph on Rural Problems in Madras*, S. Y. Krishnaswami.
2. Vide Article "India in the World Depression" by Dr. P. J. Thomas in the *Economic Journal*, September 1935.

Year.	*Index Numbers.*
1948	394
1949	409
1950	428
1951	453
1952	440
1953	439
1954*	421
1955*	393
1956	440
1957	433
1958	435
1959	460
1960	470
1961*	471

It may be mentioned in this connection that the upward trend in the cost of living index numbers for Calicut during the period 1941-61 is in conformity with the general trend prevailing in other important centres of the State and the country as a whole. Table V shows that during the decade 1941-50 the index number rose by more than 300 points in Calicut. This upward trend persisted during the decade 1951-60 also. In 1951 there was a rise in the prices of important agricultural commodities as a result of the boom conditions created by the Korean War (June 1950 to July 1953), but as the war dragged on the prices declined. The statement of the average monthly wholesale prices of coconut, coconut oil, tamarind and pepper at Kozhikode for the period 1945-53 given at Appendix III to this Chapter is indicative of this trend.

A detailed statement showing the retail prices of the various necessaries of life at Calicut and Badagara in August 1961 is given in the Table given at Appendix IV which has been specially prepared for this Chapter by the Department of Statistics.

Before concluding the study of prices we may consider the price situation in the District with reference to recent price trends in respect of some of the important cash crops as well as others. Table VI shows the price trends of some of the principal commodities like Turmeric, Cardamom, Arecanut, Coffee, Cashew etc. sold in the Kozhikode market during the years 1959 and 1960. It may be noted that the prices of

* The figures for 1954, 1955, and 1961 are for the month of January while the figures for all other years indicate the average for the year.

TABLE—VI

Statement showing price trends of some selected commodities sold in the Kozhikode Market in 1959 and 1960 (in Rupees)

Commodity	Unit	Unit 1	January 1959	January 1960	February 1959	February 1960	March 1959	March 1960	April 1959	April 1960	May 1959	May 1960	June 1959	June 1960
Turmeric	Candy	Quintal	175.00	355.00	175.00	355.00	200.00	355.00	283.27	366.25	312.50	300.00	312.50	330.00
Cardamom	lb.	k.g.	6.00	8.00	6.37	8.00	6.39	6.74	6.00	6.09	6.00	6.09	6.00	6.00
Arecanut	Cwt.	1 1/2 Quintal	196.46	175.00	206.88	175.00	207.39	175.00	197.75	175.00	189.27	203.75	187.50	207.67
Coffee	Cwt.	1 1/2 Quintal	192.50	175.00	190.00	183.12	190.00	185.00	188.40	185.00	175.00	185.00	175.00	185.00
Coir (Beypore Yarn)	Candy	Candy	189.58	210.00	190.00	210.00	191.28	210.00	198.00	210.00	198.33	216.56	187.21	214.00
Cashew	Candy	Quintal	..	..	165.00	203.28	178.05	221.33	198.48	212.42	190.88	206.25	175.00	175.00

Commodity	Unit	Unit 1	July 1959	July 1960	August 1959	August 1960	September 1959	September 1960		October 1959	October 1960	November 1959	November 1960	December 1959	December 1960
Turmeric	Candy	Quintal	312.50	330.00	312.60	360.63	312.50	357.00	112.43	328.40	113.09	365.00	112.50	355.00	112,50
Cardamom	lb.	k.g.	6.00	6.09	6.00	6.09	6.00	5.91	13.02	6.00	11.17	6.00	11.42	6.90	11.50
Arecanut	Cwt.	1 1/2 Quintal	186.15	215.56	180.09	218.86	180.30	216.12	212.88	180.00	202.76	180.00	174.17	180.00	162.00
Coffee	Cwt.	1 1/2 Quintal	175.33	185.00	175.12	178.50	175.00	166.00	163.42	175.00	164.78	175.00	165.00	175.00	163.07
Coir (Beypore Yarn)	Candy	Candy	183.67	200.00	184.34	200.00	285.00	205.33	205.33	186.00	210.00	195.00	217.92	197.25	224.40
Cashew	Candy	Quintal		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

1. Metric units of measurement are used for most of the commodities from October, 1960. For them, prices corresponding to the old and new units are given for the month of September 1960 also, for the sake of comparison.

1 Quintal—100 kilogram. 1 kilogram—2.2046 lb.

cash crops witnessed a marked rise during these years. Coming to consumer commodities, the price movement for the most important consumer commodity of Kerala, namely, rice showed some remarkable features when considered in the all-India context. There was no generalised rise or fall in the price of rice. Whatever fluctuations occurred were of the normal seasonal character. There were no abnormal features in the price fluctuations in 1958 up to June. In Kerala the price of rice usually reaches a peak by the month of June. In June 1958 the price was well below that of June 1957. But instead of turning down as is usual the price curve went shooting up and continued so until December 1958. Price per bag reached as high as Rs. 48. It fell sharply in January and February 1959. But it did not fall to the level attained in June 1957. In March 1959, there was a steep rise in prices which lasted till July. Price per bag went beyond Rs. 50. However, from August onwards, the price curve followed the normal downward seasonal pattern. Rice price in January 1960 was almost the same as that of January 1959. Trend of rice prices during the first half of 1960 followed more or less the normal pattern. January and February prices remained comparatively low. The rise observed from March to June did not show any abnormal feature. But after June 1960 the prices, instead of declining, spurted upwards, the maximum being reached in November 1960. There was a fall in rice prices observed in December 1960, but this may be attributed to increased rice flow from outside, price fall in producing centres, and increased quota of rice distribution through fair price shops. The wholesale price of rice in Kozhikode during the months of January, April, July, October, November and December for the years 1959 and 1960 is given in Table VII.

TABLE VII

Wholesale price of rice in Kozhikode in 1959 and 1960.[1]

Month.	*1959.*	*1960.*
January	41.00	41.00
April	38.50	42.00
July	51.00	46.50
October	45.40	46.99
November	47.00	51.00
December	44.00	47.50

1. *Price in Rupees per bag.*

Another essential consumer article whose price underwent fluctuations in 1959 was sugar. A fall in the availability of sugar in India as a result of the decline in production coupled with reduction in stocks and continuance of exports provoked intensified speculative activities on the part of sugar merchants and retail dealers. Consequently the price of sugar abruptly shot up. This grave situation was however brought under control in 1960. Sugar production in India was raised to 24 lakh tons during 1959-60 from 19 lakh tons during 1958-59. The inflow of sugar to Kerala increased considerably during the year. As a result, the serious fluctuation in prices which characterised the sugar market in 1959 was avoided in 1960.

In 1960 the prices of certain essential commodities like fire-wood, jaggery, coriander and chillies remained without much fluctuation during the first half; but sharp increases were witnessed in the last quarter. Thus the general price level of consumer goods rose in 1960 much above that of 1959.

Wages.

The study of wages is essential for a proper understanding of the standard of living of a people. In olden days it was customary for labourers to be paid in kind rather than in cash. The main agricultural labour force then comprised of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes who were virtually slaves tied to the soil. They had no freedom to leave the land of their masters and were even sold along with the land to the new owners. However, they enjoyed a certain security as they were given a daily wage throughout the year, whether they actually worked or not. The wage usually consisted of paddy or rice. About four decades ago a male agricultural labourer got 3 edangazhis of paddy and a female 2 edangazhis as daily wages. They were also given cloth and coconut oil on the occasion of such festivals as Onam and Vishu. In addition small sums of money were paid to them for their marriages, funerals and other celebrations. The system of paying the labourers in kind has now almost disappeared. They are now usually paid in cash. In 1949-50 a male agricultural labourer received Re. 1 and a female labourer As. 8—12 as daily wages.[1] During the last one decade the wages of agricultural labourers have almost doubled. A

1. *Land and Society in Malabar*, Adrian C. Mayer, p. 70.

statement of agricultural wages at four selected centres in the District for 1959-61 is given in Table VIII.

In 1951 a wage census was conducted in Calicut city as part of the Quinquennial wage census conducted in Madras State. The statement showing the wages (in Rupees) paid to Artisans, General Labourers and Domestic servants in Calicut for the year 1951 is given below.

Artisans

			Adults		Non-Adults	
			Superior	Ordinary	Superior	Ordinary
1.	Carpenters	..	4.00	3.50	2.00	1.12
2.	Blacksmiths	..	3.50	3.00	1.75	1.50
3.	Masons	..	4.00	3.50	2.00	1.75
4.	Bricklayers	..	4.00	3.50	2.00	1.75

General Labourers	Wages	Domestic servants	Wages
Men	2.25	Sweeper	33.00
Women	1.25	Bhisti	33.00
Children	1.25	Mali	33.00
		Syce	..

As far as industrial Labour is concerned the Government have prescribed the minimum wages for employees in several scheduled establishments in the District under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act (1948). We may consider the lowest minimum wages prescribed in some of the establishments. The workers employed in the Tile factories in the District get higher minimum wages than their compeers in the Ernakulam and Trichur Districts. An unskilled worker employed in the Tile industry gets a daily wage of Re. 1., a semi-skilled worker Rs. 1.50 and a skilled worker Rs. 1.75. In addition each worker is entitled to Dearness Allowance at the rate of one naya paisa for every two points in the cost of living index in excess of 200. In the timber industry both men and women doing indentical work get a basic wage of Rs. 25 per mensem in addition to 25.75 as Dearness Allowance. In Plantations men employed as field workers get Rs. 1.59 as daily wage and those employed as factory workers get Rs. 1.81. In other words, when calculated for 26 days the monthly rate will come to Rs. 41.44 in the case of field workers and Rs. 47.02 in the case of factory workers. Unskilled workers employed in the printing industry get a minimum monthly wage of Rs. 40 while skilled workers get Rs. 45. In oil mills the unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled workers get Rs. 1.75, 1.87 and 2.50 respectively.

TABLE—VIII

Statement showing Agricultural Wages for various Centres in Kozhikode District

Type of Labour	1959				1960				(1961 (Jan. to Nov.)			
	Nilambur	*Koduvally*	*Balusseri*	*Vayithiri*	*Nilambur*	*Koduvally*	*Balusseri*	*Vayithiri*	*Nilambur*	*Koduvally*	*Balusseri*	*Vayithiri**
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Carpenter	2.50	3.00	3.00	3.96	2.50	3.04	3.00	4.00	2.84	3.59	3.60	
Mason (Cobbler)	2.67	3.00	3.41	4.00	2.52	3.04	3.50	4.00	2.59	3.48	3.65	
Field Labour (Men)	1.56	2.28	1.99	1.70	1.86	2.25	1.95	1.72	2.21	2.22	2.39	
Field Labour (Women)	1.00	1.45	0.89	1.28	1.02	1.50	0.92	1.11	1.29	1.41	1.28	
Agricultural Labour (Men)	1.47	2.21	1.96	2.07	1.69	2.00	1.87	2.13	2.21	2.13	2.04	
Agricultural Labour (Women)	0.97	..	0.81	1.44	0.93	.	0.79	1.50	1.29	1.47	1.06	

Note. Normal number of working hours—8.

* Not available

Adult male employees in the Cashew Industry get Rs. 1.88 as daily wage. It may be seen from the examples given above that the monthly minimum wage rates in most employments do not generally fall below Rs. 40 per month for an ordinary unskilled worker and below Rs. 45 for a skilled worker.

FAMILY BUDGETS

In 1947-48 a Court of Enquiry was appointed by the Government of Madras to report on the conditions of labour in the Handloom industry in Madras State. The staff of the Court of Enquiry made a special and searching enquiry into the standard of living of the workers employed in the Handloom factories in the Calicut and Cannanore centres. Though the separate findings of the enquiry in regard to Calicut are not available, the general conclusions and figures pertaining to both the centres throw light on the economic position of the Handloom factory workers in Calicut.[1] A total population of 1602 consisting of 458 men, 532 women, 362 boys and 250 girls was covered by the survey in the two centres. Table IX shows the number of families in each of the five groups into which they were divided together with their total income and average income per family.

TABLE IX

Income Groups and their average income (Handloom Industry).

	Income groups	*Total number of families*	*Total income*			*Average income per family*		
			Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
1.	Below Rs. 35	9	247	0	0	27	7	0
2.	Rupees 35 and below Rs. 50	59	2,463	0	0	41	12	0
3.	Rupees 50 and below Rs. 75	93	5,775	0	0	62	1	0
4.	Rupees 75 and below Rs. 100	57	4,778	0	0	83	13	2
5.	Rupees 100 and above	32	3,819	0	0	119	5	6
		250	17,082	0	0	68	5	3

1. *Report of the Court of Enquiry into Labour Conditions in the Handloom Industry,* Dr. B. V. Narayanaswami Naidu, p. 24.

TABLE—X.

Family Composition (Handloom Industry)

Serial number and income groups	Total number of families investigated	Total number of persons in the families					Total number of persons per family					Total no. of gainfully employed	Average no. gainfully employed
		Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Total	Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Total		
1. Below Rs. 35	9	8	9	8	4	29	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.4	3.2	9	1.0
2. Rupees 35 and below Rs. 50	59	63	82	75	39	259	1.07	1.39	1.27	0.66	4.39	74	1.25
3. Rupees 50 and below Rs. 75	93	159	192	111	94	556	1.71	2.06	1.19	1.01	5.97	166	1.78
4. Rupees 75 and below Rs. 100	57	127	144	107	72	450	2.23	2.53	1.88	1.26	7.9	144	2.53
5. Rupees 100 and above	32	101	105	61	41	308	3.16	3.28	1.91	1.28	9.63	101	3.16
All income groups	250	458	532	362	250	1,602	1.83	2.13	1.45	1.0	6.41	494	1.98

The average size of the family was 6.41, made up of 1.83 men, 2.13 women, 1.45 boys and 1.0 girls. It may be seen from Tables IX and X that the larger the size of the family the greater was the income earned. The average number of gainfully employed persons per family in all the groups taken together was 1.98. The relevant data are given in Table X.

The average income per family in the first group was only 27-7-0, while that in the fifth group was Rs. 119-5-6, i.e. about 433.7 per cent higher. The average income of the gainfully employed persons was Rs. 27-7-0 in the lowest income group but Rs. 37-13-0 in the highest income group. Table XI gives the details.

TABLE XI

Income groups and the average income per gainfully employed person (Handloom Industry).

Serial number and income group	Average income per family			Percentage	Average income of a gainfully employed person			Percentage
	Rs.	A.	P.		Rs.	A.	P.	
1. Below Rs. 35	27	7	0	100.0	27	7	0	100.0
2. Rupees 35 and below Rs. 50	41	12	0	152.2	33	4	6	121.3
3. Rupees 50 and below Rs. 75	62	1	6	226.3	34	12	8	1[illegible]3.9
4. Rupees 75 and below Rs 100	83	13	2	305.5	33	2	11	120.9
5. Rupees 100 and above	119	5	6	433.7	37	13	0	137.8

The Report on Cottage Industries in Select Firkas in Madras State, 1956 gives us an insight into the family budgets of some of the well-to-do, middle, and lower classes of people living in the Kozhikode Firka of the District.[1] As part of the general survey of the existing structure of the Cottage Industries in Madras State held in 1952-54 the Kozhikode Firka, a typical semi-urban area was chosen for the survey of the Coir, Copra, and Coconut Oil Industries which constitute an important means of livelihood for the people of the region. The income, expenditure, assets and liabilities of several fami-

1. Vide pages 197—232 of the Report.

lies of employers and employees engaged in these industries in the 15 villages of Edakkad, Pudiyangadi, Naduvattam, Cheruvannur, Nallalam, Beypore, Kommeri, Nedungathur, Kutcheri, Kurumbrakattasseri, Nagaram, Panniyankara, Valayanad, Khasba, and Kalathankunnu in the Firka came in for special study in the course of the survey. The findings of the survey in respect of each industry are given below.

A total of 80 Units (50 family units and 30 merchant-cum-manufacturer units) was surveyed in the Coir industry. The average size of the family in the sample of 50 family units was five persons of 1.6 men, 2.1 women, 0.6 boy and 0.7 girl. Of this 1.3 men and 1.8 women were independent workers and the rest dependents. Of the 50 families 43 or 86% lived in thatched houses and only 7 or 14 per cent in tiled houses. Most of the families (43) had houses of their own, 6 lived in houses belonging to the landlords free of rent, and 1 in a rented house for which it paid Rs. 4.8 per annum. The average annual income of a family unit was Rs. 539. Table XII gives the average annual expenditure of a family unit.

TABLE XII

Average annual expenditure of a family Unit (Coir Industry).

Head of expenditure	*Amount.* *Rs.*	*Percentage to total*
Food	394	71.4
Fuel and lighting	24	4.3
Housing	34	6.2
Clothing	38	6.9
Miscellaneous items	32	5.8
Extraordinary items	30	5.4
Total	552	100.00

It may be noted that the budget of an average family unit was a deficit one, the annual expenditure exceeding the income by Rs. 13. The value of the assets owned by an average family unit and the average liability of an indebted family were also estimated in the course of the survey. The total value of assets was Rs. 810 or 1.5 times the average annual income. The details are given in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

Total value of assets of an average family unit (Coir Industry).

Description.	*Amount. Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. House	408	50.4
2. Land	322	39.7
3. Livestock	20	2.5
4. Others	60	7.4
Total	810	100.00

Of the sample of 50 families, 8 were indebted. The average liability of an indebted family was Rs. 187, and the average for the sample as a whole Rs. 30.

Of the 30 merchant-cum-manufacturer units the average size of a family was 8.3 whom 2.6 (1 man + 1.6 women) were earners and the rest dependants. Two of the units lived in thatched buildings and the third in a terraced building. The annual income of an average merchant-cum-manufacturer unit was Rs. 4103. Table XIV gives the expenditure pattern of an average unit.

TABLE XIV

Average annual expenditure of a manufacturer unit (Coir Industry).

Head.	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
Food	2,025	54.8
Fuel and lighting	180	4.9
Housing	250	6.8
Clothing	240	6.5
Miscellaneous	750	20.2
Extraordinary	250	6.8
Total	3,695	100.0

It may be seen that the average expenditure of a manufacturer unit amounted to Rs. 3695 against an average income of

Rs. 4,103, leaving a surplus of Rs. 408 per annum. The average asset of a family was Rs. 20,184. The details are given in Table XV. None of the families was indebted.

TABLE XV

Average asset of a manufacturer unit (Coir Industry).

Description.	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. House	12,000	59.4
2. Lands	6,033	30.0
3. Industrial equipment	251	1.2
4. Livestock	167	0.8
5. Shop	1,733	8.6
Total	20,184	100.00

A sample survey of 7 units engaged in the Copra industry was also conducted. The average business unit consisted of 9.3 persons of whom 1.7 men were workers and the rest dependants. The average annual income of a family was Rs. 3,854. The expenditure pattern of an average industry unit is shown in Table XVI.

TABLE XVI

Average annual expenditure of a family (Copra Industry).

Head of expenditure.	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. Food	2,050	69.9
2. Fuel and lighting	121	4.1
3. Housing	279	9.5
4. Clothing	210	7.2
5. Miscellaneous	222	7.5
6. Extraordinary	52	1.8
Total	2,934	100.0

It may be noted that the average annual expenditure of a family unit engaged in the copra industry is Rs. 920 less than the average annual income. The value of assets owned by

an average unit in this industry amounted to Rs. 9,231 which is indicative of the better economic status of the units surveyed. The details are given in Table XVII. None of the units was indebted.

TABLE XVII

Value of assets owned by an average family unit (Copra Industry).

Description.	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. Housing	5,471	59.3
2. Land	3,557	38.5
3. Industrial equipment	4	..
4. Livestock	199	2.2
Total	9,231	100.0

Three units engaged in coconut oil manufacture were surveyed in this Firka. All of them were merchants-cum-manufacturers. The average size of a family was 10 consisting of 3 men, 2.7 women, 2 boys and 2.3 girls. Almost all the men were workers and the others dependants. The annual income of an average family was Rs. 8,954. The average annual expenditure was Rs. 6,423 leaving a surplus of Rs. 2,536. Table XVIII gives the expenditure pattern.

TABLE XVIII

Annual expenditure of an average family (Coconut oil manufacture).

Head of expenditure.	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. Food	4,464	69.5
2. Fuel and lighting	148	2.3
3. House rent	360	5.6
4. Clothing	508	7.9
5. Miscellaneous	534	8.3
6. Extraordinary	409	6.4
Total	6,423	100.0

The value of assets owned by an average unit engaged in oil manufacture amounted to Rs. 13,285. The details are given in Table XIX. None of the units had any liabilities.

TABLE XIX

Value of assets owned by an average unit (Coconut oil manufacture).

Head	*Amount Rs.*	*Percentage to total.*
1. House	4,666	35.1
2. Land	6,900	51.9
3. Industrial equipment	160	1.2
4. Livestock	393	3.0
5. Shop	1,166	8.8
Total	13,285	100.0

The survey in the Kozhikode Firka also covered the rural cabinet making industry. The villages of Nagaram, Khasba Katcheri, Kurumbrakattasseri, Cheruvannur, and Panniyankara were selected for intensive survey of the units engaged in this industry. 8 family units and 8 employer units were covered by the survey. The average size of a family for the entire sample was 7.4 persons comprising 2.4 men, 2.0 women 1.2 boys and 1.8 girls. In an average family 2.1 were earners and 5.3 dependants. The number of earners in a family unit was 2.5 against 1.5 in an employer unit. Most of the family units—6 out of 8—were located in thatched buildings while most of the employer units—5 out of 8—were located in tiled buildings.

The annual income of an average family and employer unit was Rs. 1,346 and Rs. 3,090 respectively. The expenditure of an average family and an employer unit is given in Table XX.

TABLE—XX

Expenditure of an average unit (Rural Cabinet Making Industry)

Head of expenditure	*Family unit* Amount Rs.			*Family unit* percentage to total	*Employer unit* Amount Rs.			*Employer unit* percentage to total
1. Food	986	0	0	75.6	2,138	0	0	70.00
2. Fuel	39	0	0	2.8	96	0	0	3.1
3. House rent etc.	80	0	0	6.2	348	0	0	11.4
4. Clothing	96	0	0	7.1	194	0	0	6.4
5. Miscellaneous	82	0	0	6.3	165	0	0	5.4
6. Extraordinary expenditure	22	0	0	1.8	114	0	0	3.7
Total	1,305	0	0	100.0	3,055	0	0	100.0

It may be noted that in both units the average annual income was in excess of the average annual expenditure by a small margin. The average value of assets owned by a family unit was Rs. 890-12-0 while that of an employer unit was Rs. 9,431. The details are given in Table XXI. None of the units was indebted.

TABLE XXI

Value of assets owned by an average unit. (Cabinet making industry).

Description.	*Family unit.* Rs.	A.	P.	*Employer unit.* Rs.	A.	P.
1. House	318	12	0	5,925	0	0
2. Land	375	0	0	2,837	8	0
3. Livestock	92	0	0	155	0	0
4. Others	105	0	0	513	8	0
Total	890	12	0	9,431	0	0

EMPLOYMENT

No systematic enquiry into the level of employment in each of the different occupations in the District has been undertaken. Available information on the subject in respect of some of the occupations has been given in the previous Chapter. We have also some statistical data regarding the average daily employment in the registered factories of the District. Table XXII shows the number of registered factories in the major industries and the average daily employment in them.

TABLE XXII

Average Daily Employment in registered factories (1957).

Item.	*Number of Registered Factories.*	*Average Daily employment.*
1. Cotton Textiles	24	2,086
2. Splints and Veneers	14	701
3. Other Wood Industries	36	1,521

	Item.	*No. of registered factories.*	*Average daily employment.*
4.	Cashew	2	1,237
5.	Bricks and Tiles	17	4,193
6.	Coir	13	1,418
7.	Tea	10	374
8.	Beedi and Cigar	13	334
9.	Printing	15	676
10.	Oil Mills	6	133
11.	Automobile repairing	21	374
12.	Rubber (including factories in plantations)	9	275
13.	General & Electrical Engineering	5	467
14.	Matches	2	129
15.	Soap	2	144
16.	Other Industries	41	2,470
	All Industries	230	16,532

The unemployment problem is rather acute in the District. The Employment Market Reports and the Statistical Reports of the Employment Exchange reveal an unhappy situation. It may be noted that out of the total population of 26,19,283 (1961 Census) 10,16,063 persons in the District are literate. It has been roughly estimated that about 87,445 persons are self-employed, 20,136 employed in the public sector, and 82,000 in the private sector. It has also been estimated that among the literate persons about 12,000 are unemployed. Unemployment is rampant particularly among the educated classes because educated young men seek white-collared jobs and are reluctant to do manual labour.

Employment Exchange, Kozhikode.

The Sub-Regional Employment Exchange, Kozhikode, started functioning as early as December 1945. Its territorial jurisdiction comprised the whole of the erstwhile Malabar District and the South Canara-Coorg region. It was under the direct control of the Government of India till the day-to-day administration of the Department of National Employment Service was transferred to the State Governments. Consequent

on the reorganisation of States in November, 1956, the Government of Kerala took over the administration of the Sub Regional Employment Exchange, Kozhikode and converted it into the District Employment Exchange Grade I. The jurisdiction of the Employment Exchange, Kozhikode, is confined to the Kozhikode District.

Table XXIII which gives the figures of the total number of registrations, placements, number of unemployed persons on the live register and the number of employers using the Exchange for each of the years from 1957-1961 will give an idea of the working of the Employment Exchange at Kozhikode during 1957-61.

TABLE—XXIII

Statistics of the Working of the Employment Exchange (1957-61)

Year	Number of Registrations	Number of placements	Number of unemployed persons remaining in the live register — Male	Number of unemployed persons remaining in the live register — Female	Number of Employers using the Exchange
1957	12325	2837	10719	1204	1036
1958	11274	1803	6703	1109	605
1959	11061	1519	8652	1521	393
1960	12481	1800	10077	1948	317
1961 (upto June 30, 1961)	5779	1158	10275	2357	248

The particulars of the number of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Ex-Servicemen, Matriculates, and Degree holders remaining on the live register at the end of each year for the same period are given in Table XXIV.

An Employment Market Information Unit was started in the Employment Exchange, Kozhikode, in 1958. It elicits information regarding the employment position from both the public and private sectors. The collection of this information is made on the basis of "establishment system" of reporting quarterly. The purpose of collecting information on these lines from the employers is three fold. First of all, it gives the Employment Officers more facts on which they can base their reports of the employment situation and it enables them to determine more accurately the type of personnel in short supply. Secondly, it provides information which is required

TABLE—XXIV

Number of persons on the Live Register of the Employment Exchange Kozhikode during 1957-1961

Year	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes	Ex-Service men	Passed Matriculate but not passed Intermediate Exam.		Passed Intermediate Exam. but not completed the Degree Course		Graduates with one or more degrees				Others	
								Engineering		Medical			
				Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1957	212	5	568	4446	585	174	6	..	..	.	..	196	15
1958	197	27	324	2993	621	116	9	2	..	1	..	98	24
1959	350	68	454	2915	803	86	19	1	..	..	..	180	34
1960	504	35	410	3262	971	96	15	1	..	..	..	139	23
1961 ending June	507	36	366	3457	1203	68	6	3	..	2	..	195	82

to improve and add to the services provided by the National Employment Service. Employers too will be enabled to call on the Employment Exchange for more reliable information about the employment market in a locality. Thirdly it provides a method by which to measure continuously the changes in the level of employment in an Employment Exchange area or other areas constituting specific employment markets. The data so collected are highly useful for planning and administration purposes at both state and national levels as well. They are split up industry-wise and given wide publicity through regular Employment Market Reports.

A Vocational Guidance Unit has also been started in the Employment Exchange, Kozhikode, in December, 1960. The Vocational Guidance and Employment Counselling Programmes under the unit are designed to give intensive guidance to those who seek such assistance. The programme of Vocational Guidance is intended mainly to assist educated young men and is conducted in close collaboration with the Guidance Services in Schools. Employment Counselling is intended to give assistance to adults who seek employment.

An Employment Information and Assistance Bureau is also functioning at Wandoor Block Headquarters from December 1960. The main object in opening this Bureau is to take the benefits of the National Employment Service to the doors of the needy.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The bulk of the area and population of the District is covered by Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks. In November 1961 there were 17 Blocks in the District covering 253 villages*. The area covered by them was 1887.16 sq. miles. At the same time the population covered by these 17 Blocks was 14.8 lakhs, (1951 Census). The names of the Blocks with details of their location, the date of establishment, total area covered etc. are given in Appendix V.

The Community Development Programme is a multi-purpose programme which seeks to achieve the all-round economic, social and cultural advancement of the community. The work under the programme covers all important fields of activity

* Two more Blocks have been opened at Pantalayani and Kuttipuram in the District on April 1, 1962.

such as Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Health and Rural Sanitation, Education, Social Education, Communication, Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries, and Co-operation. A statement showing the achievements and people's contributions under the Community Development Programme in respect of the Blocks of the district is given in Appendix VI to the Chapter.

A statement showing the relative positions at the commencement of the Community Development Programme on 2nd October, 1956 and 31st December 1961 in the Kunnummel N.E.S. Block, the oldest Block in the District, is also given at Appendix VII in order to give a general idea of the progress achieved under the Community Development Programme.

APPENDIX—I

TABLE—A

Average annual price of Unhusked Rice (Paddy), 1,000 Macleod seers from 1860 to 1880 calculated at the rate of 4 1/4 seers of Rice to 10 of Paddy

Years	Kurumbranad			Wynad			Calicut			Ernad		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
1860 ..	61	5	1	52	8	3	55	7	2	57	9	4
1861 ..	62	5	1	55	4	7	51	10	10	57	9	4
1862 ..	60	11	4	54	7	5	53	10	0	57	9	4
1863 ..	56	5	11	67	8	2	58	14	5	55	12	11
1864 ..	63	8	3	76	8	1	63	13	2	55	0	11
1865 ..	66	15	1	91	13	3	65	11	11	58	2	10
1866 ..	76	1	3	102	15	5	79	10	7	70	14	9
1867 ..	61	12	3	85	4	6	63	0	4	49	9	5
1868 ..	57	1	3	75	8	10	63	7	1	47	14	1
1869 ..	63	12	4	64	7	6	62	1	6	54	5	10
1870 ..	60	3	4	56	9	10	56	4	2	47	3	4
1871 ..	48	15	1	51	12	2	43	5	0	38	11	5
1872 ..	52	13	6	61	0	9	50	5	8	53	3	5
1873 ..	51	13	4	70	11	5	48	4	10	47	14	4
1874 ..	60	4	1	71	12	7	60	6	3	55	15	5
1875 ..	54	8	9	66	12	1	55	5	1	56	15	6
1876 ..	63	14	3	80	12	5	59	2	2	57	8	11
1877 ..	77	10	5	112	6	0	73	12	0	78	9	4
1878 ..	79	7	2	101	11	1	78	11	11	81	8	4
1879 ..	70	9	4	83	0	1	68	9	3	72	14	1
1880 ..	58	3	10	72	12	8	56	9	4	55	1	10
Total	1,308	10	11	1,555	11	1	1,268	2	8	1,210	6	8
Average— of the 21 years ..	62	5	1	74	1	3	60	6	0	57	10	0
Do. dear do.	68	9	5	89	15	11	67	14	10	72	6	8
Do. cheap do.	56	9	9	62	2	3	53	8	7	53	0	4

APPENDIX—I. (*Contd.*)

TABLE—B.

Average monthly price of Unhusked Rice (Paddy), 1000 Macleod seers, from 1860 to 1880, calculated at the rate of 4 1/2 seers of Rice to 10 of Paddy

Months	*Kurumbranad*			*Wynad*			*Calicut*			*Ernad*		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
January ..	59	8	8	68	10	9	57	0	9	56	7	0
February	59	15	7	66	9	4	56	15	7	54	13	1
March .	62	0	3	67	1	1	59	7	4	57	5	3
April ..	62	0	6	69	7	8	60	12	4	57	2	5
May ..	62	3	6	71	5	4	61	2	0	58	0	3
June ..	63	7	6	75	13	2	62	13	0	60	15	11
July ..	65	0	2	79	9	1	65	13	0	66	2	4
August ..	66	0	5	80	11	10	64	0	10	64	8	9
September ..	64	6	9	79	7	6	60	11	7	56	6	10
October ..	61	11	11	79	4	7	59	9	0	50	13	1
November .	61	0	9	77	10	7	58	8	8	52	14	0
December	60	13	4	73	4	0	57	12	8	56	1	8
Total	747	13	4	888	14	11	724	10	9	691	10	7
Average—												
of the 12 months ..	62	5	1	74	1	3	60	6	3	57	10	3
Do. dear do.	64	11	9	78	12	1	62	8	9	62	6	10
Do. cheap do.	61	1	10	69	6	4	58	3	8	55	3	11

APPENDIX—I. (*Contd.*)

TABLE—C.

Statement showing the price of 1,000 Macleod seers of Gingelly-seed, 1861-81.

Years		*Kurumbranad*			*Wynad*			*Calicut*			*Ernad*		
		Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
1861	..	260	6	8	..	..	..	145	13	4	..	..	..
1862	..	260	6	8	..	..	..	161	7	4	..	..	..
1863	..	260	6	8	..	..	..	151	0	8	..	..	..
1864	..	260	6	8	..	..	..	171	14	0	..	..	..
1865	..	239	9	4	..	..	..	161	7	4	..	..	..
1866	..	239	9	4	..	..	..	213	8	8	..	..	..
1867	..	239	9	4		..	..	187	8	0	..	..	..
1868	..	239	9	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1869	..	239	9	4	..	..	..	156	4	0	..	..	..
1870	..	239	9	4	151	0	8	171	14	0	..	..	..
1871	..	239	9	4	151	0	8	166	10	5	166	10	8
1872	..	239	9	4	130	3	4		..	..	166	10	8
1873	..	239	9	4	156	4	0	..	..	..	197	14	8
1874	..	239	9	4	156	4	0	..	..	..	197	14	8
1875	..	239	9	4	177	1	4	..	..	..	197	14	8
1876	..	239	9	4	177	1	4	..	..	..	229	2	8
1877	..	239	9	4	177	1	4	..	..	..	229	2	8
1878	..	239	9	4	156	4	0	..	..	..	265	10	0
1879	..	239	9	4	156	4	0	..	..	..	265	10	0
1880	..	239	9	4	125	0	0	..	..	..	125	0	0
1881	..	197	14	8	125	0	0	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	..	5,072	14	8	1,838	8	8	1,687	8	0	2,041	10	8
		241	9	1	158	3	5	168	12	0	204	2	8

APPENDIX—I. (*Contd.*)

TABLE—D

Statement showing the price of Coconuts and Arecas for twenty years from 1962 to 1881.

Years	Kurumbranad						Wynad						Calicut						Ernad					
	Price of 1,000 green Coconuts			*Price of 1,000 green Arecanuts*			*Price of 1,000 green Coconuts*			*Price of-1,000 green Arecanuts*			*Price o 1,000 green Coconuts*			*Price of 1,000 green Arecanuts*			*Price of 1,000 green Coconuts*			*Price of 1,000 green Arecanuts*		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
1862	25	0	0	0	8	0	53	13	4	1	8	0	19	0	0	1	8	0	25	0	0	1	6	0
1863	25	0	0	0	8	0	47	8	0	1	8	0	22	0	0	1	8	0	23	8	0	1	4	0
1864	30	0	0	0	9	7	46	10	8	1	10	0	21	0	0	2	0	0	20	0	0	1	4	0
1865	30	0	0	0	9	7	56	10	8	1	10	0	20	0	0	1	8	0	22	0	0	1	8	0
1866	45	0	0	0	9	7	56	10	8	1	10	0	24	0	0	2	4	0	32	0	0	3	0	0
1867	35	0	0	0	9	7	55	8	0	1	8	0	30	0	0	0	2	0	30	0	0	2	4	0
1868	30	0	0	0	9	7	45	6	8	1	8	0	30	0	0	2	0	0	28	0	0	1	12	0
1869	26	0	0	1	0	0	42	14	8	1	8	0	22	0	0	1	10	0	27	0	0	1	12	0
1870	30	0	0	0	8	0	49	2	10	2	15	8	21	0	0	1	12	0	25	0	0	1	12	0
1871	25	0	0	0	8	0	46	4	9	1	14	5	30	0	0	1	12	0	24	8	0	1	10	0
1872	30	0	0	0	8	0	35	8	7	1	12	10	19	0	0	1	4	0	25	0	0	1	8	0
1873	32	0	0	0	8	0	38	8	8	1	10	0	17	0	0	1	0	0	25	8	0	3	0	0
1874	32	0	0	0	8	0	40	0	0	1	15	0	19	0	0	1	0	0	30	0	0	4	0	0
1875	35	0	0	0	8	0	42	0	0	1	15	0	19	0	0	1	0	0	30	0	0	3	0	0
1876	30	0	0	0	8	0	44	2	5	1	15	0	22	0	0	1	8	0	29	0	0	2	8	0
1877	28	0	0	0	8	0	50	4	3	2	0	0	21	0	0	1	8	0	27	8	0	1	12	0
1878	26	0	0	0	8	0	52	11	0	1	8	0	33	0	0	1	8	0	25	0	0	1	8	0
1879	23	0	0	0	8	0	41	12	1	1	8	0	27	0	0	1	8	0	24	0	0	1	8	0
1880	20	0	0	0	9	7	34	9	6	1	0	0	20	0	0	1	4	0	18	0	0	1	0	0
1881	18	0	0	0	9	7	37	8	0	1	6	0	17	0	0	1	4	0	..	..	..	..		..
Total	575	0	0	11	3	1	917	10	1	33	13	11	453	0	0	30	10	0	491	0	0	37	4	0
Average	28	12	0	0	8	11	45	14	1	1	11	1	22	10	5	1	8	6	25	13	6	1	15	4

APPENDIX—II

Prices in Seers per Rupee in select centres 1916-1931

Years	*Calicut*	*Kurumbranad*	*Quilandi*	*Manjeri (Ernad)*	*Tirurangadi*	*Vayittri*
		Rice, Second Sort.				
1916-17	8.0	7.7	6.9	7.8	6.7	7.3
1917-18	7.3	7.1	6.6	7.1	6.2	6.5
1918-19	5.2	5.0	4.9	5.5	4.4	4.7
1919-20	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.3	3.7	3.9
1920-21	5.2	5.1	5.7	5.5	4.6	4.8
1921-22	5.6	5.4	5.3	(c) 5.4	(d) 4.7	4.8
1922-23	5.9	5.8	5.5	5.8	4.9	4.9
1923-24	5.88	6.00	5.59	5.95	5.46	4.83
1924-25	5.18	5.00	5.01	5.25	4.81	4.04
1925-26	5.54	5.12	5.25	5.45	5.05	4.79
1926-27	5.3	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.0	4.8
1927-28	5.5	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.7	5.2
1928-29	6.0	5.3	5.1	5.8	5.1	8.1
1929-30	6.4	6.0	5.2	6.1	5.4	5.2
1930-31	8.4	7.8	7.1	8.0	7.1	7.4
		Paddy, first sort				
1916-17	11.7	11.7	6.9	..	..	..
1917-18	11.0	10.9	6.6	..	..	..
1918-19	7.8	7.4	4.9	..	..	..
1919-20	6.4	6.6	4.1	..	..	..
1920-21	8.2	..	5.7	..	..	8.4
1921-22	8.4	8.6	5.3	..	..	..
1922-23	9.0	9.2	5.5	..	..	..
1923-24	8.91	9.55	5.59	..	(c)17.14	..
1924-25	7.72	8.85	5.01	..	..	..
1925-26	8.29	8.65	5.25	..	(c) 8.05	..
1926-27	8.1	8.6	7.7	..	..	..
1927-28	8.3	9.0	7.8	(a)10.2	..	..
1928-29	8.8	9.8	7.8	..	..	..
1929-30	10.2	10.2	7.9	..	10.8	..
1930-31	12.9	13.1	10.6	..	(a)10.7	..
		Paddy, Second Sort				
1916-17	12.3	12.1	11.5	13.9	11.5	..
1917-18	11.9	11.4	10.9	12.5	10.3	..
1918-19	8.5	7.8	7.9	9.4	7.6	
1919-20	7.3	6.9	6.8	7.5	6.3	..
1920-21	8.9	8.7	8.4	9.9	8.1	..
1921-22	9.1	9.0	8.7	(e) 8.9	(d) 7.8	..
1922-23	9.3	9.6	9.2	10.3	9.2	..
1923-24	9.66	9.86	9.17	10.41	10.54	..
1924-25	8.22	8.62	8.27	9.07	7.68	..
1925-26	8.50	8.94	8.46	10.02	8.61	..
1926-27	8.3	8.9	8.3	9.5	7.9	..
1927-28	8.4	9.3	8.7	9.6	8.7	..
1928-29	9.0	10.3	8.6	11.5	(b) 9.0	..
1929-30	10.5	10.7	8.6	11.9	8.8	..
1930-31	13.5	13.7	11.2	13.9	13.5	..

APPENDIX—II. (*Contd.*)

Prices in Seers per Rupee in select centres 1916-1931

Years	*Calicut*	*Kurumbranad*	*Quilandi*	*Manjeri (Ernad)*	*Tirurangadi*	*Vayittiri*
			Horsegram			
1916-17	13.3	12.8	13.2	12.5	10.4	12.8
1917-18	10.0	10.0	11.2	9.4	8.6	10.0
1918-19	6.7	6.8	7.5	6.8	5.8	6.5
1919-20	5.6	5.6	5.2	5.1	4.6	5.5
1920-21	6.0	6.0	5.7	5.8	5.0	5.3
1921-22	5.4	5.6	5.9	(c) 5.8	4.9	5.1
1922-23	7.4	7.3	7.1	7.0	5.9	6.4
1923-24	8.25	8.29	8.61	7.87	8.54	3.39
1924-25	7.47	6.84	7.23	6.18	5.55	6.14
1925-26	7.69	8.23	8.17	7.26	6.80	7.38
1926-27	7.7	7.8	7.8	8.4	6.9	9.1
1927-28	6.4	6.3	6.9	6.1	5.0	6.0
1928-29	6.7	7.1	7.6	6.8	5.3	6.6
1929-30	8.4	8.8	8.0	8.2	7.0	9.5
1930-31	10.2	10.7	11.1	11.3	8.5	13.0
			Ragi			
1916-17	..	..	..	..	..	..
1917-18	.	..	..	..	..	..
1918-19	(f) 8.1	..	..	..	..	..
1919-20	(l) 5.2	..	..	..	..	..
1920-21	6.0	..	..	..	..	..
1921-22	..	9.6	..	(e) 6.3	..	10.6
1922-23	6.9	(e) 17.2	..	..	..	9.6
1923-24	8.57	..	..	..	..	8.75
1924-25	7.65	(f) 7.15	..	..	..	6.71
1925-26	6.51	8.37	(e) 10.92	..	..	7.48
1926-27	6.9	9.2	..	..	..	9.8
1927-28	6.7	10.2	..	..	..	10.0
1928-29	7.4	10.2	..	..	..	10.1
1929-30	9.0	10.7	..	..	..	9.5
1930-31	9.9	14.1	..	..	..	14.3
			Salt			
1916-17	16.3	16.4	15.6	13.7	15.5	11.6
1917-18	12.7	13.2	12.2	11.1	11.4	8.8
1918-19	12.2	13.1	12.3	12.4	13.4	8.3
1919-20	15.2	17.1	16.1	15.3	15.0	(l) 8.6
1920-21	15.6	16.9	16.7	15.1	15.2	(c) 9.0
1921-22	13.5	14.8	14.7	12.3	11.9	8.2
1922-23	12.4	12.9	12.7	12.0	10.5	9.0
1923-24	10.85	11.21	10.82	10.22	8.78	7.60
1924-25	14.30	15.17	15.76	13.79	14.33	7.96
1925-26	14.26	15.77	14.41	14.18	14.12	9.46
1926-27	14.3	15.4	14.1	13.8	12.8	9.5
1927-28	15.2	17.7	15.8	14.5	12.8	9.5
1928-29	14.8	15.3	15.0	13.3	13.2	9.5
1929-30	15.7	16.3	14.9	13.8	14.2	9.5
1930-31	16.5	17.1	15.2	14.0	14.2	11.7

(a) Sold cheap throughout the year
(c) Sold for 4 months
(d) Sold for 3 months
(e) Sold for 1 month
(f) Sold for 2 months
(l) Sold dear throughout the year

APPENDIX—III

Average Monthly wholesale prices (in rupees) of Principal Commodities in Kozhikode (1945-53)

Years	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
					COCONUT HUSKED (PER 100)							
1945	85	90	81.25	76	66.25	69	81.75	78.75	85	98.25	112.50	123
1946	136.25	150	162	157.50	163.75	159	168.75	153	161.25	161.25	170	158.75
1947	125	122.50	125	125	125	127.75	140	135	132	112.50	174	115
1948	115	106	91.25	96.25	120	105	110	105	100	105	115	125
1949	120	147.50	172.50	164	165	165	165	170	170	175	178.75	190
1950	197.50	197.50	180	184	190	182.50	194	160	128.75	146.67	150	174
1951	187.50	209	200	200	197.50	188	197.50	173.33	172	185	190	194
1952	173.75	160	113	121.25	111.25	103.75	118.75	120	125	117.50	109	110
1953	163	162.50	152.58	153.75	147.50	138.75	141	132.50	142.50	151	147.50	140
					COCONUT UNHUSKED (PER 1000)							
1945	90	95.09	86.25	81	71.25	74	86.75	83.75	90	103.25	117.50	128
1946	141.25	155	167	162.50	168.75	164	173.75	158	166.25	166.25	175	166.25
1947	135	N.Q.	N.Q.	130.09	130	133.75	145	140	137	118.75	119	120
1948	120	111	96.25	101.25	125	110	115	115	115	120	130	145
1949	140	157.50	182.50	174	175	175	175	175	175	180	185	200
1950	207.50	207.50	190	194	200	190	159	168.75	133.75	N.Q.	160	186
1951	216.25	247.50	250	250	250	241	250	223.33	222	230	235	238
1952	198	190	129	131.25	127.50	122.50	118.75	120	125	130	128	125
1953	150	157	161.25	163.75	157.50	141.25	146	136	145.50	158	158.75	152.50
				COCONUT OIL (PER STD. MAUND OF 82.2/7 LBS.)								
1945	41.46	42.49	39.69	38.03	33.81	36.20	41.48	39.50	39.75	42.36	50.28	57.74
1946	61.74	65.28	62.61	63.40	63.40	68.44	73.21	74.32	79.68	82.32	83.03	65.96
1947	52.74	54.58	52.23	51.18	51.18	55.03	71.15	69.24	60.21	49.69	48.92	50.72
1948	48.22	43.98	35.57	43.88	49.63	50.86	53.51	54.10	55.28	64.09	66.80	70.56
1949	68.21	68.36	70.27	67.62	66.30	67.62	67.62	79.09	77.60	78.32	76.30	77.62
1950	83.95	84.67	77.47	75.71	80.26	82.32	81.61	83.48	87.91	86.22	89.38	89.65
1951	91.43	86.49	87.49	87.32	88.06	91.25	90.85	90.16	90.20	95.20	92.31	82.32
1952	77.17	60.37	51.27	53.07	55.39	55.39	58.21	62.48	61.15	61.89	64.84	62.7
1953	65.91	68.45	69.16	68.48	70.50	69.11	62.92	68.09	68.26	65.10	66.27	68.4

APPENDIX III—(*Contd*)

Years	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
					*TAMARIND (PER STD. MAUND OF 82.2/7 LBS)							
1950	25.87	25.28	23.52	23.52	24.67	23.52	23.52	23.52	23.52	23.52	23.52	23.52
1951	22.93	18.96	16.46	15.88	15.29	15.29	15.29	15.29	15.29	15.29	15.29	15.29
1952	15.29	14.11	13.29	11.76	11.76	11.76	11.76	13.41	14.69	19.85	23.04	23.50
1953	18.69	15.72	14.13	14.13	14.11	14.13	14.13	14.13	14.13	14.[illegible]	14.13	N.Q.
					SUGAR (PER HUNDRED WEIGHT)							
1945	26.87	26.87	26.87	26.74	26.74	26.74	26.74	24.97	25 33	26.75	26.75	26.75
1946	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	26.75	31.00	32.31
1947	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31	32.31
1948	44.23	56.17	56.15	56.15	56.15	56.20	56.25	56.25	56.25	56.15	56.15	56.15
1949	49.00	47.32	47.31	47.31	47.31	47.31	47.31	50.85	48.31	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
1950	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
1951	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
1952	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.M.	N.M.	48.17	49.88	47.20	46.00	46.38	36.00	46.38
1953	46.20	45.00	44.63	32.51	33.57	34.07	34.31	34.31	34.31	34.31	34.31	34.90

N. S. —No Stock N.M.—No Market. N. Q. Not quoted

* In the case of tamarind the prices given are from 1950 onwards.

APPENDIX—IIII (*Contd.*)

PEPPER

(Per Std. Maund of 82.2/7 Lbs.)

Varieties	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
						1945						
Nadan	40.28	42.48	40.87	42.46	35.96	37.04	39.84	37.34	39.28	39.55	41.31	44.69
Wynad	41.31	43.51	41.75	44.56	37.19	37.87	40.87	38.87	40.45	40.72	41.90	45.86
Vadakkan	40.28	42.48	40.87	42.46	35.96	37.04	39.84	37.34	39.28	39.55	41.31	44.69
						1946						
Nadan	45.72	43.66	45.86	51.31	51.89	56.68	62.18	63.39	71.88	71.44	66.80	70.56
Wynad	46.90	44.84	47.04	52.04	52.63	57.27	62.77	64.73	72.91	72.62	67.97	71.74
Vadakkan	45.72	43.66	45.86	51.31	51.89	56.68	62.18	63.39	71.88	71.44	66.80	70.56
						1947						
Nadan	70.56	66.91	62.33	65.56	63.50	66.79	65.86	64.68	67.74	69.98	81.14	84.09
Wynad	71.74	60.09	63.15	66.44	64.09	63.65	66.74	65.86	68.91	71.15	82.32	85.26
Vadakkan	70.56	67.61	62.33	66.56	63.50	62.79	65.86	64.68	67.74	69.98	81.14	84.09
						1948						
Nadan	89.40	85.14	89.97	106.43	116.54	118.34	146.29	155.22	164.63	182.29	180.16	152.88
Wynad	90.55	86.32	91.14	107.61	117.72	119.52	147.82	156.39	165.80	183.46	181.34	155.22
Vadakkan	89.40	85.14	89.97	106.43	116.54	118.34	146 29	155.22	164.63	182.29	180.16	152.88
						1949						
Nadan	120.91	137.00	179.05	197'33	199.92	220.94	260.64	340.45	332.22	406.90	404.23	332.81
Wynad	122.07	138.18	180.23	198.51	201.10	222.74	263.66	344.87	339.57	417.80	410.13	339.59
Vadakkan	120.91	137.00	179.05	197.33	199.92	220.94	260.60	340.45	332.22	406.90	404.23	332.81
						1950						
Nadan	380.73	430.71	435.12	435.12	435.12	322.22	390.43	455.70	495.39	488.19	410.13	446.88
Wynad	388.08	436.59	441.00	441.00	441.00	332.22	396.31	461.59	507.15	498.33	421.88	457.46
Vadakkan	380.73	430.71	435.12	435.12	435.12	322.22	390.43	455.70	495.39	488.19	410.13	446.88

APPENDIX—III (*Contd.*)

Varieties	*January*	*February*	*March*	*April*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*August*	*September*	*October*	*November*	*December*
						1951						
Nadan	443.94	449.82	436.38	460.11	458.64	478.63	493.92	511.56	513.91	479.23	449.82	403.37
Wynad	452.76	454.23	449.70	468.93	458.93	488.04	501.27	519.40	524.50	492.01	455.70	411.60
Vadakkan	443.94	459.82	436.90	460.11	458.64	478.63	493.92	511.56	513.91	479.23	449.82	403.37
						1952						
Nadan	361.62	358.68	281.06	279.30	311.64	373.38	452.76	439.82	427.77	435.12	388.17	321.88
Wynad	373.38	364.56	291.67	291.06	323.40	382.20	464.52	448.06	438.11	446.88	392.78	343.72
Vadakkan	361.62	358.68	281.06	279.30	311.64	373.38	452.76	439.82	427.77	435.12	388.17	321.88
						1953						
Nadan	277.43	318.88	382.05	385.74	388.91	374.29	340.88	282.13	285.10	265.66	229.19	243.87
Wynad	289.23	329.18	389.41	393.81	396.29	385.19	351.48	288.00	292.13	276.25	240.91	254.19
Vadakkan	277.43	318.88	388.05	385.74	388.91	374.21	340.83	282.13	288.10	265.66	229.19	243.87

APPENDIX—IV

Statement of Retail Prices
at Calicut and Badagara

Sl. No.	Commodity	Unit	August 1961	
			Kozhikode	Badagara
1.	Rice	Ed.	0.74	0.74
2.	Chillies	lb.	1.08	1.12
3.	Corriandar	,,	0.64	0.64
4.	Onions	,,	0.14	0.14
5.	Salt	,,	0.04	0.04
6.	Tapioca	,,	0.07	0.05
7.	Greengram	,,	0.48	0.38
8.	Blackgram	,,	0.37	0.30
9.	Mutton	,,	1.38	1.38
10.	Fish	,,	0.46	0.11*
11.	Milk	Ed.	1.24	1.24
12.	Tea	lb.	2.13	2.78
13.	Sugar	,,	0.61	0.62
14.	Coconut Oil	Ed.	3.00	2.84
15.	Coconut	100	21.38	32.00
16.	Kerosene	24 oz.	0.27	0.25
17.	Fire-wood	Ton	29.97	..
18	Arecanut	100	2.74	1.39
19.	Tobacco (Ordinary)	lb.	2.60	1.95

*Change in variety.

APPENDIX—V

Statement of Blocks Started in the Kozhikode District showing area and population etc.

Sl. No.	Taluk	Name of Block	Present Status	Year of Starting	Area in sq. miles	Population	No. of villages: Panchayats	Remarks
1	Badagara	Kunnummal	Stage I	October 2, 1956	100.07	69,246	11	N.E.S.
2	Ernad	Wandur	,,	April 1, 1957	459.55	1,16,853	14	,,
3	Badagara	Thuneri	,,	April 1, 1957	51.07	64,347	12	,,
4	Ernad	Kondotti	,,	October 2, 1957	112.25	1,04,916	17	,,
5	Quilandi	Perambra	,,	October 2, 1957	64.36	73,384	17	,,
6	Quilandi	Balusseri	,,	April 1, 1958	70.37	1,00,000	19	,,
7	Kozhikode	Kunnamangalam Pre-Extension Block	,,	April 1, 1958	119.30	91,564	19	Pre-Extension Block Converted into Stage I on April 1, 1959.
8	Tirur	Thirurangadi Pre-Extension Block	,,	October 2, 1958	45·96	1,05,385	13	Pre-Extension Block
9	Ernad	Malappuram	,,	April 1, 1959	80.07	91,302	16	Converted into Stage I on April 1, 1960.
10	Badagara	Thodannur	,,	April 1, 1959	42.85	74,024	14	Converted into Stage I on April 1, 1960.
11	Tirur	Tanur	,,	October, 2 1959	47.97	99.779	14	Converted into Stage I Block on October 1, 1960.
12	Kozhikode	Koduvalli	,,	October 2, 1959	104.9	93,966	20	Converted into Stage I Block on October 1, 1960.
13	South Wynad	Sultan's Battery	,,	April 1, 1960	371.18	64,515	11	Pre-Extension Blocks converted into Stage I on April 1, 1961.
14	Ernad	Manjery	,,	April 1, 1960	110.34	91,500	17	Pre-Extension Blocks converted into Stage I on April 1, 1961.
15	Quilandi	Melati	,,	October 1, 1960	38.68	62,240	14	Converted into Stage I Block on October 1, 1961.
16	Tirur	Tirur	Pre-Extension	April 1, 1961	46.14	93,063	15	
17	Badagara	Badagara	,,	April 1, 1961	22.91	84,378	10	

APPENDIX—VI

Statement showing the Physical achievements and peoples' contributions under the Community Development Programme for the years 1957 to 1961 in the Kozhikode District.

			1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
1.	Compost Pits Dug	(Nos.)	990	3031	4897	3570
2.	Fertilizers distributed		25 tons	7119 mds.	13677 mds	120828 md.
3.	Insecticides distributed		10 tons	19 tons	903 Cwts.	4928 cwts.
4.	Seeds distributed		278 Paras	608 mds.	424 mds.	647 mds.
5.	Coconut seedlings distributed	(,,)	2635	12455	20518	24403
6.	Green Manure seeds distributed	(cwts.)	19	16	5145	3114
7.	Implements Distributed	(Nos.)	30	147	298	218
8.	Farmers/Youth clubs	(,,)	14	20	29	41
9.	Area under Japanees Method of Paddy Cultivation	(Acres)	332	3272	3781	1407
10.	Agriculture Demonstration Plots	(Nos.)	..	..	606	..
11.	Area brought under fruit trees	(Acres)	55	..	..	..
12.	Area under Vegetables	(,,)	103	..	..	..
13.	Crop competitions	(Nos.)	..	9	62	325
14.	Breeding Centres	(Nos.)	1	3	7	4
15.	Pedigree Bulls supplied	(,,)	1	22	10	2
16.	Insemination Natural	(,,)	10	94	225	443
17.	Insemination Artificial	(,,)	..	1	43	323
18.	Pedigree Birds supplied		539	619	263	745
19.	Cattle treated and Vaccinated		754	6153	12430	21199
20.	Bulls castrated		306	1231	1962	2584
21.	Poultry centres	(Nos.)	2	..	20	7
22.	Hatching Eggs Supplied	(,,)	5721	4409	1358	1189
23.	Birds inoculated	(,,)	522	3956	3984	6980
24.	Cattle shows conducted	(,,)	1	6	5	5
25.	Fisheries and Fingerlings	(,,)	9582	5878	14510	17800
26	Pumpsets hired	(,,)	..	2	15	63
27.	Additional area brought under cultivation acres		..	..	..	..
28.	Additional area brough under assured water supply	(Acres)	..	..	20	..

APPENDIX—VI. (*Contd.*)

			1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
29.	Ar a Reclaimed	(,,)	18	70	132	402
30.	Demonstration Plots for S. C.		..	17	19	..
31.	Surface wells Constructed	(Nos.)	..	19	11	33
32.	Surface wells Renovated	(,,)	..	5	3	13
33.	Soakage pits constructed		68	20	21	63
34.	Rural latrines Constructed	(,,)	83	163	137	185
35.	Drains Constructed	(,,)	4	32	11	390
36.	Health Centres	(,,)	4	14	9	1
37.	Community Rural Centres	(,,)	16	15	1	8
38.	Children's Park	(,,)	12	1	6	10
39.	Sports Clubs	(,,)	16	57	31	47
40.	Adult Literacy Centres	(,,)	48	8	65	63
41.	Adults benefited	(,,)	833	433	1139	1044
42.	New Libraries and Reading Rooms opened	(Nos.)	9	86	44	42
43.	Books supplied to Libraries	(,,)	2126	2414	1101	1975
44.	Entertainments Organised		166	427	268	520
45.	Cultural Clubs		11	144	34	102
46.	Villages Leaders and Young Farmers Camps		8	38	39	..
47.	N. C. C. & A. C. C. Camps		..	2	1	5
48.	Village Leaders Organisations		20	7	1	23
49.	Women's Clubs		13	30	18	31
50.	Pucca Roads	(Miles)	6	84	..	9
51.	Katcha Roads	(Miles	48	46	21	83
52.	Production Cum Training Centres	(Nos.)	10	8	5	15
53.	Bee-hives supplied	(Nos.)	11	346	93	177
54.	Industrial Co-operative Societies		4	16	27	18
55.	Other Co-operative Societies		13	21	9	13
56.	Culverts		..	10	16	15
57.	Village houses Constructed		..	36	45	18
58.	Village Houses re-conditioned	(Nos.)	..	2	23	..
59.	Labour Value	(Rs. 000)	74	93	275.25	117.80
60.	Land	(Acres)	40	73	8	41
61.	Land Value	(Rs. 000)	37	106	32	38
62.	Others	(Rs. 000)	34	28	52	..

APPENDIX—VII

Achievements of the Kunnummel N. E. S. Block under the Community Development Programme[1]

Item	Unit	Pre-extension period	Progress achieved since the beginning of the Block
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
A. AGRICULTURE.			
		as on	31-12-1961.
Total cropped area	Acres		
Paddy			1280
Viruppu or Kanni long duration crop			1390
Mundakan or Second Crop		2721	810
Puncha or third crop	..	..	12
Cocoanut		23847	24000
Arecanut			1900
Pepper		..	2000
Rubber ..		..	1000
Compost pits dug	Nos.	Nil	2152
Chemicals Fertilizers distributed	M. Tons	Nil	211
Insecticides & fungicides distributed	M. Tons	Nil.	17.2
Improved Seeds Distributed.	M. Tons	Nil.	8.84
Green manure Cuttings distributed	No.	Nil	1.5 lakhs
Seedlings distributed.			
Cocoanut	Nos.	Nil.	11500
Arecanut	Nos.	Nil.	9800
Fruit and other plants	Nos.	Nil.	2206
Pepper Cuttings		Nil.	2500
Vegetable Seeds	Kg.	..	52
Agricultural demonstrations held	No.	Nil.	610
Nurseries started.			
Cocoanut	..	..	2
Arecanut	..	..	6
Distribution of Improved Agricultural implements	Nos.	..	18
Plant protection equipments	,,	..	9
Agricultural Exhibitions	,,	..	11
Agricultural loans distributed	Rs.	..	80568
Young Farmers Clubs started	Nos.	..	8
B. Animal Husbandry.			
Artificial Insemination Centres	Nos.	Nil	1
Veterinary Dispensaries opened	,,	,,	1
Stockmen Centres	,,	,,	2
Artificial Inseminations conducted	,,	,,	537
No. of Calves born	,,	,,	145
No. of cases treated	,,	,,	11584
No. of castrations done	,,	,,	792
No. of operations performed	,,	,,	627
No. of Inoculations conducted	,,	,,	2371

1. The figures relating to several items for the pre-extension period are practically nil as shown in the Statement. In some cases the figures at the commencement of the Block are not available and they have been left blank. The Block was inaugurated on 2nd October 1956.

APPENDIX VII—(*contd.*)

Item (1)	*Unit* (2)	*Pre-extension period* (3)	*Progress achieved since the beginning of the Block* (4)
Antirabic treatment conducted	"	"	57
Poultry vaccinated	"	"	147
Hatching Eggs distributed	"	"	3388
Cattle shows conducted	"	"	3
Quantity of mineral mixture sold	lbs.	"	1645
Grass slips distributed	Nos.	"	65000
No. of Demonstration Fodder farms	"	"	11
No. of milk Societies started	"	"	1
No. of Chicks hatched and distributed	"	Nil	52
No. of birds distributed	"	"	177
C. Health and Sanitation.			
Surface Wells constructed	..	..	4
Surface Wells renovated	..	..	3
Rural latrines constructed (Water seal type)	..	..	115
W. H. O. Model	..	..	92
Drains constructed	Yds.	..	2000
Urinals	Nos.	..	29
D. Social Education.			
Community Centres opened	Nos.	:	3
Children's Parks opened	..	..	12
Balwadies opened	..	..	3
Sports Clubs organised	..	..	7
Adult literacy Centres	..	..	3
Adults benefited	..	..	45
New libraries opened	..	..	8
New Reading Rooms		..	10
Entertainments organised	..	..	540
Cultural Clubs (Youth Clubs etc.)	..	..	50
No. of members	..	..	2500
Womens Clubs	..	..	10
No. of members	..	..	890
Nurseries functioning	..	..	3
No. of children attending	..	..	85
Grama Sahayak Camps	..	..	23
Film shows organised	..	..	125
Radio Rural Forms organised	Nos.	..	2
Excursions	..	..	7
E. Communications.	..		
Kutcha Roads constructed	Miles	12 3/8	19.1
Kutcha Roads improved		..	3.5
Culverts constructed	Nos.	..	22
Foot Bridges constructed	..	..	6
Bridges constructed	..	..	6
F. Rural Arts, Crafts & Industries.			
1. Production Centres	..	..	8
2. Crafts adopted for training	..	Amber charka, tailoring, Cane & Bamboo Works, Pottery, Weaving etc.	
3. Students trained	..	..	194
4. Beehives supplied	..	..	75

APPENDIX VII (*contd*)

Item (1)	*Unit* (2)	*Pre-extension period* (3)	*Progress achieved since the beginning of the Block* (4)
5. Value of Output from Industrial Units established	Rs.	..	1,10,000 (approx.)
6. Ambar Charkhas introduced	Nos.	..	110
7. Sewing machines distributed	Nos.	..	10
8. Improved ghanies introduced	Nos.	..	4
9. Grants issued to industrial Co-operative Societies	Rs.	..	36400
10. Loans issued to industrial Co-operative Societies	Rs.	..	47665
G. Co-operation.			
No. of Co-operative Societies functioning			
Credit	Nos.	6	10
Farming	..	..	1
Others	..	3	8
Total		9	19
Membership in credit societies	Nos.	..	9893
in Farming	..	..	30
in others	..	..	861
Total			10784
Amount of Share Capital.			
raised in			
Credit Societies	(Rs,'000)	..	239.80
Farming	..	..	0.17
Others	..	..	23.15
TOTAL			263.12

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

The Kozhikode District has been divided both on geographical and functional basis for purposes of general administration. Geographically it is divided into two Revenue Divisions, 6 Taluks, 21 Firkas and 208 Amsoms or Villages. Functionally the District Administration is carried on through the various Departments of the State Government each of which has an office of its own at the district level. The District Collector is the head of the District Administration and the District Officers of the various Departments in the District tender technical advice to him in the discharge of his duties. "In our country the District has always been the pivot of the structure of administration, and the District Collector has been a key functionary of Government having large powers and wide responsibilities. In many ways he has been the link between a centralised administration of Government and the people, the guardian of law and authority, the eyes and ears of Government. His opinion has been taken in many matters not directly in his charge. All this has given him an unrivalled position and prestige"[1]. In recent years the position of the Collector as the head of the District Administration has become one of expanding responsibilities and growing complexities. We may consider the functions of the Collector under the following heads:—(1) Executive, (2) Revenue (3) Fiscal, (4) Magisterial and (5) Developmental.

Executive functions

The Collector is the chief executive officer of the District and as such the pivot of the District Administration. Though the officials of the various Departments in the District are under the immediate control of the respective Heads of Departments, the Collector exercises general supervision over them in regard to their non-technical work. On matters of

1 *Community Development in India*, B. Mukerjee, p. 184.

general policy which do not involve technical questions the decision of the District Collector is final in case of any difference of opinion between him and a District Officer. The Collector inspects all offices and works undertaken in the District. But it may be noted that in spite of the immense powers vested in him the Collector generally restricts his inspection work to the following offices in the District viz., the Revenue Offices, the Police Stations, Educational Offices and Schools, Panchayats, Registration Offices, Excise and Sales Tax Offices, Hospitals and Dispensaries, Agricultural Offices, and Veterinary Offices and Dispensaries. Co-ordination of the activities of various Departments by constant contacts with the Officers concerned, control over local self-governing bodies with power to intervene, if necessary, contact with the public in committees or during interviews with visitors, execution of Government policies such as National Savings Campaign, Grow More Food Campaign etc., miscellaneous functions such as rationing and food control, and relief measures in times of emergencies like famines, floods, epidemics etc., also come within the purview of the functions of the District Collector. He is empowered to incur expenditure under discretionary grants upto Rs. 2,000 a year in order to relieve distress caused by floods, famines and other natural calamities. He can also spend a portion of this grant for other beneficial purposes. Moreover, any work which cannot be assigned to a well-defined or technical Department is usually entrusted to the Collector as a matter of expediency.

In his office the District Collector, Kozhikode is assisted by a Personal Assistant in the grade of a Deputy Collector. The Collectorate, or the Office of the Collector is divided into different sections each of which is under a Section Head as shown below:

A Section	Huzur Sheristadar (in the grade of a Tahsildar).
B ,,	Huzur Head Clerk (in the grade of a Deputy Tahsildar).
C ,,	Additional Huzur Head Clerk (in the grade of a Deputy Tahsildar).
D ,,	Magisterial Head Clerk (in the grade of an U.D. Clerk).
E ,,	Record Keeper do.
J ,,	Superintendent of Survey.

CS	Section	Superintendent (in the Grade of a Deputy Tahsildar).
FC	„	Fair Copy Superintendent.
MS	„	Inspector of Weights and Measures.

Revenue functions

The Collector is the Head of the Land Revenue Department at the District level. The major revenue duties include general supervision and control of the land records and the staff of the Revenue Department, promotion, transfer, demotion and punishments etc., of the subordinate officials according to the rules framed by Government, supervision over the collection of revenue, submission of periodical reports to the Board of Revenue and the Government, and also hearing of appeals against the decisions of the subordinate Officers in matters connected with Land Revenue. In the administration of Land Revenue the District Collector, Kozhikode, is assisted by 2 Revenue Divisional Officers, 6 Tahsildars, 21 Firka Revenue Inspectors, 208 Adhikaries (Village Officers), 236 Menons (Village Assistants) and 444 Kolkarans (Village Men).

Fiscal functions

In the field of fiscal administration the Collector is responsible for the proper accounting of all money received in and paid from the Government Treasuries in the District and for the submission of periodical returns to the Government and the Accountant General. The District Treasury is located in the Collectorate itself and it is under the immediate charge of a Treasury Deputy Collector who is also Personal Assistant to the Collector. In addition to the District Treasury there are 6 Sub-Treasuries in this District with headquarters at Kozhikode, Badagara, Quilandi, Vayittiri, Tirur and Manjeri each of which is under a Sub-Treasury Officer. The Treasury Deputy Collector exercises general supervision over their work and is responsible to the Collector for the proper administration of all the Treasuries in the District.

Magisterial functions

The District Collector is responsible for the maintenance of law and order in the District. Till recently he was functioning as Magistrate for the administration of criminal justice

within the scope of the Criminal Procedure Code. But as a result of the separation of the executive from the judiciary in Madras State[1] and its application to the Malabar area the Collector and other revenue officials subordinate to him were deprived of their judicial functions. However, in view of his responsibility for the maintenance of law and order the Collector is vested with certain magisterial powers of an executive character. He exercises some of the powers of the District Magistrate and is an Additional District Magistrate. Similarly the Revenue Divisional Officers of Kozhikode and Malappuram are ex-officio First Class Magistrates (Executive). The Collector and the Revenue Divisional Officers exercise powers in regard to police administration[2]. The District Superintendent of Police and the forces under his command are under the control of the Collector.

Moreover, the Collector is also responsible for the administration of several Acts which are obviously administrative or executive in nature[3]. The sanctioning and withdrawal of prosecutions, control over Government Pleaders, issue of certificates, enquiry into petitions, verification of character of candidates for appointment in Government service, registration of foreigners etc., are also under the purview of the Collector functioning in the capacity of Additional District Magistrate. The Personal Assistant to the Collector (General) and the Revenue Divisional Officers are also given some of the above powers.

For the prosecution of cases in this District the Collector has a number of Public Prosecutors under him. The number

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1 Vide Madras G.O. 2304|Public (Separation) dated September 24, 1952.

2 See Chapter XII where the subject of the separation of the executive from the judiciary is discussed in detail.

3 The most important of the Acts administered by the Collector are the Arms Act, Cenematograph Act, Dramatic Performance Act, Drugs Act, Dangerous Drugs Act, Electricity Act, Emigration Act, Explosives Act, Factories Act, Foreigners Act, Mines Act, Motor Vehicles Act, Passport Act, Petroleum Act, Police Act, Press and Registration Act, Press Objectionable Matter Act, Preventive Detention Act, Public Health Act, Public Safety Measures Act and Telegraph Act.

of Public Prosecutors, their headquarters and jurisdictions are given below:—

Designation.	*Headquarters.*	*Jurisdiction.*
Public Prosecutor	Kozhikode	Sessions Court, Kozhikode.
Additional Public Prosecutor	Kozhikode	Assistant Sessions Court, Kozhikode.
Do.	Badagara	Assistant Sessions Court, Badagara
Assistant Public Prosecutor (Grade I)	Kozhikode	District Magistrate's Court, Kozhikode.
Do. (Grade II)	Kozhikode	Sub Magistrate's Court, Kozhikode, Munsiff-Magistrate's Court, Kalpetta and Industrial Tribunal, Kozhikode.
Do. (Grade II)	Malappuram	Sub Divisional Magistrate's Court, Malappuram and Sub Magistrate's Court, Manjeri.
Do. (Grade II)	Tirur	Sub Magistrate's Court, Tirur and Additional Sub Magistrate's Court, Kozhikode.
Do. (Grade II)	Badagara	Sub Magistrate's Court, Badagara, Munsiff-Magistrate's Court, Perambra and First Class Magistrate's Court, Quilandi.

Development and planning

The Collector is the District Officer responsible for the administration of the Planning and Development Department of the Government at the district level and the implementation of various plan schemes. The major developmental activities comprise of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, reclamation, education, housing, health and rural sanitation, social education, communication, rural arts and crafts, and industries. The Community Development Programme which by its very nature is multi-purpose seeks to embrace within its fold all the major developmental activities mentioned above, and it is the duty of the Collector to see that the programme is implemented effectively. The programme has helped to highlight

the role of the Collector in planning, development and co-ordination. It has given him the complex role of the captain and co-ordinator over the entire field of development in the District and has added considerably to his workload.

In the administration of developmental activities, the Kozhikode District is divided into Blocks and Panchayats and the development policies are implemented through a set of Officers called the Block Development Officers assisted by technical personnel consisting of specialists selected from various Departments. On April 1, 1962 there were nineteen Blocks in the District. Most of the Block Development Officers and the subordinate ministerial staff are attached to the Land Revenue Department and the technical Officers to their respective Departments. The technical Officers include (1) an Extension Officer for Agriculture, (2) an Extension Officer for Animal Husbandry, (3) an Extension Officer for Industries, (4) an Extension Officer for Panchayats, (5) a Social Education Officer, (6) an Extension Officer for Co-operation, (7) a Junior Engineer, (8) an Overseer, (9) a Health Inspector, (10) a Junior Statistical Inspector and (11) a Mukhya Sevika. Gramasevak is the lowest Officer at the village level.

District Development Council

The successful implementation of planning and development schemes depends to a large extent on the co-operation between the public and the Officers of the various Departments at the District, Taluk and village levels. In order to ensure this co-operation and enlist the active participation of the people in developmental activities various non-statutory bodies consisting of official and non-official members have been set up in all the Districts of Kerala. The most important of such bodies is the District Development Council. The District Development Council for Kozhikode has the District Collector as its Chairman. All the members of the Legislative Assembly and Parliament from the District are its members. In addition the Council includes representatives of various political parties and Kisan and Trade Organisations nominated by the Government. The District Officers of the various Departments connected with the implementation of Plan Schemes are *ex-officio* members of the Council. The District Development Council meets once a month to review the progress of the Plan Schemes, and takes such steps as are necessary for their

speedy and efficient implementation. The Council can also form sub-committees of its own for speedy transaction of business when considered necessary. It can also conduct local enquiries about schemes proposed to be taken up or schemes in progress through one or more of its member, but the number of such members should not exceed three and at least one of them must be an official. Whenever important subjects which require the approval of the Government are discussed at meetings of the Council quarterly reports on such matters are submitted to the Government.

Block Advisory Committees

For each Development Block there is a Block Advisory Committee consisting of the following members: (1) All members of the Legislative Assembly and members of Parliament representing the Block area, (2) representatives of all Panchayats in the Block, (3) one representative of Co-operative Societies, (4) two Social Workers of whom one shall be a woman, (5) one representative of the Bharat Sevak Samaj, (6) one representative of the Social Welfare Board, (7) one representative of Mahila Samajams, (8) two or three other prominent non-officials whose association with the Advisory Committee would be beneficial, (9) the Chairman of the Municipality, in case a Municipality or part of it is included in a Block, (10) one Harijan. The Revenue Divisional Officer of the area concerned is the Chairman of the Block Advisory Committee and the Block Development Officer the Convenor. All the Extension Officers and the Gramasevaks attend the meetings of the Block Advisory Committee. The Committee meets once a month. The agenda for the meeting includes the presentation by the Block Development Officer of the report of the activities in the Block, and discussion by the members of the report as well as of future programmes for the speedy and efficient implementation of Plan Schemes.

The District Recruitment Board

The District Recruitment Board for the Kozhikode District was constituted in 1959 in pursuance of the recommendation of the Administrative Reforms Committee (1958). The Board consists of a member of the Public Service Commission as Chairman and the District Collector as member. There is also provision for nomination by Government of a non-official member to the Board, but the nomination has not so far been

made. The District Officer of the Department to which the recruitment is made is also associated with the process of selection.

The function of the District Recruitment Board is to make selection for recruitment to the following categories of posts in the civil services: (1) all posts the minimum pay of which is Rs. 35 or less, (2) non-technical posts for which the minimum educational qualification is lower than a pass in the S.S.L.C Examination, and (3) minor technical posts such as Drivers Fitters, Mechanics etc., even though the minimum pay attached to them may be above Rs. 35. A list of posts earmarked for recruitment by the District Recruitment Boards on the above basis has been drawn up by Government[1]. There are about 400 categories of posts belonging to the various Departments in the District which come within the purview of the District Recruitment Board. The selection made by the District Recruitment Board is final and is regarded as selection made by the Public Service Commission. Till the end of February 1961, the District Recruitment Board, Kozhikode had selected 167 candidates for different posts.

Regional and District Offices

There are a number of Regional and District Offices of the State Government functioning in the District. The list of the most important of the Regional and District Officers in Kozhikode is given below:—

1. The District Judge, Kozhikode.
2. Superintendent of Police, Kozhikode.
3. Superintending Engineer (Roads & Buildings), Public Works Department, Kozhikode.
4. Superintending Engineer (Irrigation), Kozhikode.
5. do. (Electrical), Kozhikode.
6. Deputy Commissioner, Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax, Calicut.
7. Deputy Commissioner, Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowment, Calicut.
8. Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Calicut.
9. Conservator of Forests, Calicut.
10. Regional Transport Officer, Calicut.
11. Deputy Director of Panchayats, Calicut.
12. Joint Director of Agriculture, North Zone, Calicut.

1 Vide G.O.Ms. 691 Public (Rules) Department, dated June 26, 1959.

13. Deputy Director of Fisheries, Calicut.
14. Principal Port Officer, Calicut.
15. Regional Inspector of Fisheries, Calicut.
16. District Magistrate, Calicut.
17. District Medical Officer of Health, Calicut.
18. Regional Deputy Director of Public Instruction, North Zone.
19. District Educational Officer, Kozhikode.
20. Executive Engineer, Roads and Buildings, Calicut.
21. do. (Irrigation), Calicut.
22. do. (Public Health), Calicut.
23. District Registrar, Calicut.
24. District Statistical Officer, Calicut.
25. District Forest Officer, Calicut.
26. District Welfare Officer, Calicut.
27. District Industries Officer, Calicut.
28. District Veterinary Officer, Calicut.
29. Assistant Director of Fisheries, Calicut.
30. District Fire Officer, Calicut.
31. District Agricultural Officer, Calicut.
32. District Labour Officer, Calicut.
33. District Information Officer, Calicut.
34. Commissioner, Calicut Municipality.

Central Government Officers

The following Central Government Officers are also functioning in this District.

1. Administrator, Laccadive Minicoy and Amindive Islands, Kozhikode.
2. Executive Engineer, Laccadive Minicoy and Amindive Islands, Kozhikode.
3. Assistant Station Director, All India Radio, Kozhikode.
4. Assistant Coffee Marketing Officer, Indian Coffee Board, Kozhikode.
5. Assistant Controller, Coir Exports, Kozhikode.
6. Assistant Director, (Food) Central Storage Depot, Kozhikode.
7. Assistant Engineer, Central Public Works Department, Kozhikode.
8. Assistant Collector of Central Excise, Kozhikode.
9. Superintendent of Central Excise, Calicut Circle, Beypore-2.

10. Superintendent of Central Excise, Special Customs, Preventive Circle, Kozhikode.
11. Officer-in-charge, Central Marine Fisheries, Research Sub-station, Kozhikode.
12. Additional Income Tax Officer, Kozhikode.
13. Secretary, Indian Central Arecanut Committee, West Hill, Kozhikode.
14. Central Telegraph Officer, Enquiries, Kozhikode.
15. Electrical Supervisor, Central Telegraph Office, Kozhikode.
16. Engineering Supervisor Carrier, Kozhikode.
17. Engineering Supervisor, Telegraphs, Kozhikode.
18. Engineering Supervisor, Telephones, (Auto) Office Kozhikode.
19. Engineering Supervisor, Telephones (Traffic), Kozhikode.
20. Sub-Divisional Officer, Telegraphs, Kozhikode.
21. Sub-Divisional Officer, Telephones, Kozhikode.
22. Superintendent of Post Offices, Malabar Division, Kozhikode.
23. Superintendent, Central Telegraph Office, Kozhikode.
24. Testing Telegraph Master, Testing Branch, Central Telegraph Office, Kozhikode.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

LAND REVENUE

Introduction

An enquiry into the origin and nature of the various tenures prevailing in the District is essential for a proper understanding of the system of land revenue administration. The principal tenures are *Jenmam, Kanam, Kanam-Kuzhikanam, Kuzhikanam, Verumpattam and Kudiyiruppu.* Various theories have been put forward to explain the origin of these tenures, all of them being equally inconclusive. In fact, the leading authorities on Malabar tenancy have differed so radically from one another and drawn such opposite conclusions from the same evidence that it has been difficult to establish clearly the claim of one or other of the theories to historical accuracy. Nevertheless, there are a few the very nomenclature of which gives clues to the probable origin and nature of the tenures.

Jenmam and Kanam

There are conflicting theories in regard to the origin and nature of *Jenmam* and *Kanam*. The whole controversy regarding Malabar land tenures really hinges round the redeemability of the *Kanam* tenure vehemently claimed by the *Jenmi* and denied to him with equal vehemence by the *Kanam* tenant. Before going into the details of the controversy it may be stated at the outset that as settled by judicial decisions *Jenmam* is the highest form of ownership known to law and means absolute ownership, while *Kanam* is generally a lease for 12 years. The Malabar Tenancy Act (Act XIV of 1930) defines the *Jenmi* as "a person entitled to the absolute proprietorship of land". Under the Kerala Agrarian Relations Act, 1960 *Kanam* in the Malabar area means "the transfer for consideration in money or in kind or in both by a landlord of an interest in specific immovable property to another for the latter's enjoyment, whether described in the document evidencing the transaction as *Kanam* or *Kanapattam* the incidents of which transfer

include (a) right in the transferee to hold such property liable for the consideration paid by him or due to him, (b) the liability of the transferer to pay to the transferee interest on such considerations unless otherwise agreed to by the parties and (c) the payment of *Michavaram* or customary dues, or renewal on the expiry of any said period by the transferee".

It may be noted that *Jenmam* is a word of Sanskrit origin and is usually interpreted to mean "birth" or "birth right" and therefore the hereditary right in the soil conferring absolute ownership. The word *kanam* has been explained in three ways. Dr. Gundert derived it from *kanuka*, to see and explained it as meaning that which is seen or the visible right of the *Kanamdar* by virtue of his being in possession as opposed to the invisible right of the *Jenmi*. Another view is that the word is the same as a Tamil word meaning among other things, money, a small gold coin or anything valuable. According to Logan it means supervision and refers not to rights in land but to the position of the Nair guild in society as the executive part of the body politic, their function being that of the "ear, the hand and the eye".

The traditional account of the origin of *Jenmam* and *Kanam* rights is contained in the *Keralolpathi*. It is as follows:

"Parasurama created Malayalam, the Keralabhumi, and gave it as a gift to the Brahmans of the 64 *gramams*. The gift of flower and water given to the sixty-four *gramams* together for their enjoyment is called *Janmam*. That gift was given to the *tarawads* of a *gramam* together and called *Egodagam*. Afterwards he gave the right called Rajamsam to 3,600 Brahmans of ten *gramams* by pouring water on the sword. They can put their finger in water and say this is *janmam;* but the others may not put their finger in water and say 'this is my *janmam'*; they have only enjoyment."

"Parasurama having sent for Sudras from various countries made them settle and prescribed various rules of conduct for them. He created *adima* and *kudima* in the *desam*, protected *adiyans* and *kudiyans*, established *taras* and *sankethams*, separated the Nayars into *taras* and ordered that to them was to belong the duties of supervising (lit: the eye), executing (lit: the hand) and giving orders, in such a manner that rights should not be curtailed or suffered to fall into disuse. To the *kudiyans* the *kizhkur* (inferior share), to the Brahmans the

adhikur (the superior share); to the former the *kanam*, and to the latter *janmam*; and so the law of *kanam* and *janmam* and the rules of conduct for the Brahmans and custom for the Sudras were ordained."

The claim of the Brahmins that they and they alone have always enjoyed the full *Jenmam* or proprietary right in the land is based on the *Keralolpathi*. This tradition was generally accepted by the early British administrators. The consensus of opinion among recent writers is that the Brahmanical view of the origin of *Jenmam* was propounded and popularised by the Brahmins themselves in their own interest and that there is hardly any evidence to support it. It is even suggested that all lands in Kerala originally belonged to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and that they came into the possession of the Brahmins only from 12th century onwards[1].

Logan was one of the earliest to reject the theory of a Brahmin theocracy and monopoly of land. His views on the question based on a detailed examination of a number of deeds may be stated as follows. The word *Jenmam* occurs first in a deed dated 856 Kollam Era (1681 A.D.), No. 22 in Logan's Collection. Earlier deeds in the Collection use the phrase *Nir Attiper*. Logan interpreted it as "water-contact-birth-right", or the birth right obtained by coming into contact with water. In his view the right transmitted was not a right in the soil at all, but only a social position carrying with its certain privileges. Logan came to this conclusion from the insistence that he found in many early *attiper* deeds on the social rights which they purported to convey. He was also impressed by the negative evidence furnished by the old *Kanam* deeds in his Collection which contained no reference at all to redemption or to any period for which the *Kanam* was to run. He conceived of Malabar society as being divided into guilds. The cutivators who are at the bottom were entitled to 1|3rd of the produce. Above them were the guilds of the Nairs or *Kanamdars* whose duty was supervision. The Nair guild collected the *Pattam* or authority's share in the exercise of their supervisory function and paid half of it to the chieftains or overlords; later known as *Jenmis*, who possessed the "water-contact birth-right" which entitled them to various

1. *Jenmi Sambradayam Keralathil*, Prof. Elamkulam P. N. Kunjan Pillai, pp. 5-43.

social privileges. In the wake of the disintegration of the traditional Malabar society, the relationship of guild and overlord became one between individuals. However, all the parties had to be maintained out of the produce of the land. Consequently their right became related to the land, and its produce came to be divided in equal shares between the *Jenmi* or overlord, the *Kanamdar* and the *Verumpattamdar*. When the *Jenmi* required money he naturally turned to the *Kanamdar* for it, and in return allowed the *Kanamdar* to retain in his possession a part of the *Jenmi's* share of the produce in addition to the *Kanamdar's* own share. Thus originated the money advance which later became a distinctive feature of the *Kanam* tenure. The *Kanam* right held by the Nair guilds was at first a perpetual one, but that of the individual *Kanamdar* was not. Deed No. 19 of 1666 A.D. in Logan's Collection converted an individual *Kanam* into *Karayma* or permanent tenure as individual *Kanam* right could be terminated at each succession of a new Raja, and perhaps also of a new *Jenmi*. By the time of the Mysorean conquest and occupation an individual *Kanam* right had come to be regarded as so secure that tenants including Mappilas were content to take large *Kanam* rights from the Hindu *Jenmis* who fled to Travancore. They could have seized the *Jenmam* right itself if they wanted. But what they actually did was to advance small sums of money and to obtain deeds assigning to them large *Kanam* rights. In the words of Logan "Had Jenmam meant in those days *dominium, as it does new,* and had *Kanam* meant a mere lease liable to cancelment every twelfth year *as it does now,* it may be shrewdly guessed that the Mappilas would not have made such indifferent bargains. But the fact was that a *Kanakkaran* was as much the proprietor of the soil as the *Jenmi* himself was in former days. They were in short CO-PROPRIETORS bound together in interest by the admirable laws of custom".[1] Thus in Logan's view the original guild system had developed into a system of joint proprietorship by individuals, whereby the *Jenmi*, the *Kanamdar* and the *Verumpattamdar* shared equally the produce of the soil. This customary relationship was, according to him misunderstood by the early British administrators and the British courts. Consequently they treated the *Jenmi* as the absolute proprietor of the soil, the *Kanamdar* as the mortgagee whose tenure was terminable

1. *Malabar Manual*, Logan, Vol. I, p. 612.

after the period of his contract and the *Verumpattamdar* as a tenant-at-will. The application of this erroneous view disturbed the customary relations of the parties in favour of the *Jenmi* and to the disadvantage of the *Kanamdar* and *Verumpattamdar*.

The unorthodox views of Logan have been the subject of detailed analysis and criticism at the hands of other leading authorities on Malabar tenancy[1]. The views of some of the most important of these authorities may be mentioned here. Sir W. Robinson, a member of the Madras Governor's Council in the seventies of the last century, examined the very same documents relied on by Logan and agreed with the latters' conclusion that *Jenmam* in old days denoted only family and hereditary rights irrespective of ownership of land, though among these was included also family property. But in all other respects he disagreed with Logan. According to him all land was private property and it was distributed among a multitude of *ryotwari* landholders and proprietors from the native ruler, nobles and religious institutions down to the *Verumpattamdar*. He also criticised Logan's interpretation of the terms *Nir Attiper* and *Kanam* and the theory of the traditional social structure of Malabar.

Sir Madhava Rao's Commission in their Report dated 17th July, 1884, agreed with Logan that the term *Jenmam* did not signify the absolute proprietorship of the soil and that the *Jenmi* had nothing more than a right to the share of the produce of the land. The Commission considered that there was also a community of rights in the ownership of the land, the several classes holding the land jointly. The *Kanamdar* was regarded as a settled occupant of the land having as much right to his customary share of the produce as the *Jenmi* had to his. They assigned to the *Jenmi* the right of the ruler who claimed a share of the produce.

Sir Charles Turner, the then Chief Justice of Madras, severely criticised the views of Logan and the Madhava Rao Commission and denied the charge that the court had disturbed the customary relations between the *Jenmi* and *Kudiyan*

1. For a detailed analysis and criticism of the views of Logan see *Malabar District Gazetteer* by Innes & Evans (pp. 308-320), the *Malabar Tenancy Committee Report* 1940 (pp. 7-12), and the *Report of the Special Officer for the Investigation of Land Tenures in Malabar*, 1947 (pp. 14-24).

He justified the decision of the civil courts over a long period in holding that the *Kanamdar* was only a tenure holder under the *Jenmi*. Turner explained the absence of any reference to redemption in *Kanam deeds* by saying that it was too well known to need mentioning.

In his book *Land systems of British India* Baden Powell has criticised the theory of Logan and has propounded a theory of his own in regard to the origin of the *Jenmam* right. According to him the process of the growth of the landlord's right was an evolutionary one which is in all essentials the same as that which had taken place in other parts of India. He holds that the *Jenmi* was the absolute owner of the land and the *Kanamdar* only a tenure holder under him. The theory of Baden Powell has however been criticised by Sir Charles Innes in the *Malabar District Gazetteer* as having been based on incorrect and doubtful assertions.

Moore in his *Malabar Law and Custom* has subjected Logan's theory to searching criticism. According to him the interpretation given by Logan to such important terms as *Kanam, Nir Attiper, Jenmam*, etc., is not at all correct. He also regards Logan's indentification of the *Kanamdars* with the Nairs as a mere hypothesis without any fact in support. He equates the Sanskrit terms *Jenmam* and *Jenmi* with the Mussalman terms *Zemin* and *Zemindar* and suggests that the *Jenmi* had the same absolute rights over property as the *Zemindar*.

The views of Logan and other authorities have been examined in detail by the Malabar Tenancy Committee (Kutti Krishna Menon Committee 1940) in their Report.[1] The Committee sums up the theories of the nature and origin of tenures as the *Verumpattamdars'* case, the *Kanamdars'* case and the *Jenmis'* case. The *Verumpattamdars'* case is the view originally put forward by Logan that the rights of the *Jenmi, Kanamdar* and *Verumpattamdar* were not rights over the soil as such, but positions in the political organisation of the country. The *Kanamdars'* case which found a vigorous advocate in the Madhava Rao Commission is that *Kanam* was an irredeemable tenure and that the view taken by the civil courts that it was redeemable and terminable is wrong. The Jenmis' case which was upheld by most of the early British administrators and

1. Vide pp. 7-18 of the Report.

adopted by the courts is that the Jenmi was absolute owner of the property from whom all tenures were derived and that *Kanam* was a redeemable tenure. The Malabar Tenancy Committee was itself not in a position to come to any unanimous opinion in regard to the historical validity of these views. In the words of the Committee: "It has not been possible for the Committee to come to any unanimous opinion regarding the origin of *Janmam* and *Kanam*. The majority of us are of opinion that there is no evidence to show that the *Janmi* was the absolute owner of the soil and the *Kanamdar* was a mere tenant-at-will. As the *Kanamdar* was the occupier, he must have been the original owner. In the troublous times of old, the *Kanamdar* must have acknowledged allegiance for his own safety to some Raja, *Naduvazhi* or *Desavazhi* (local chieftain), *Devasthanam* (God) or *Nambudiri Brahmin* (visible God, as one witness put it before us), and *Janmam* right must have originated in that way and must have meant only a sort of overlordship and not absolute right to the soil. This appears to be clear from the fact, that all the lands originally belonged in *Janmam* to the Rajas, *Devasthanams* and Nambudiris. As they did not themselves occupy and cultivate the lands, original occupation and cultivation could not have been the basis of *Janmam*. As Sir Thomas Munro stated, the military chiefs of each Nad or Desam regarded themselves as *Janmis* whatever that term denoted originally. The military chiefs must have conceded similar rights to *Devasthanams* and *Nambudiri Brahmins*". It may be mentioned here that N. Raghavendra Rao who was appointed in 1947 as Special Officer for the investigation of land tenures on the recommendations of the Malabar Tenancy Committee did not agree with the Committee's opinion on the origin and nature of *Jenmam* and *Kanam* rights.

It may be pertinent in this connection to refer also to the view of the origin of *Jenmam* as expounded by E. M. S. Namboothiripad in his dissenting note to the *Malabar Tenancy Committee Report.*[1] Namboothiripad is of the view that *jenmam* right in its present form and with its present incidents did not obtain in early days and that it was the British jurists who gave *Jenmam* its modern connotation. "The British rule", he says, "made a two-fold change in land tenure. (1) It took away certain rights and privileges of the

1. Vide pp. 71-81 of the Report.

Jenmi which were social, political, and cultural in character, (2) It gave him new unrestricted rights on the landed property held by him. That is, from a relationship based on status, land tenure was turned into one contract. The advocates of different classes forget this fundamental fact when they argue that their right in the soil is admitted by history. A relationship based on contract, however natural to us in modern days, is unthinkable in those days".

The renewal fee has been a characteristic feature of the *Kanam tenure* [1]. It means the amount paid to the *Jenmi* by the *Kanamdar* when the tenure was renewed periodically. The origin of renewals and renewal fees is not quite clear. Various theories have been put forward and one of them is that the renewal fee was in the nature of a succession duty paid on the death of the *Jenmi* or the tenants. The Malabar Tenancy Committee (1940) thought it likely that renewals and renewal fees might have had their origin in this way, but they were not quite sure about it. Early records testify to the fact that renewals took place frequently. In Major Walker's treatise it is noticed that in every case the lease must expire with the life time of the *Jenmi* and that it must be renewed by his heir[2]. Similarly whenever there was a change in the tenant the renewal had to be effected by the new tenant. It was under such circumstances that the renewals became more frequent. According to Walker it was for 3 to 6 years. Greame, Special Commissioner in 1822, has stated that it was for 3 or 4 years[3]. In fact the period between one renewal and another depended on circumstances, and there was hardly any fixity about it. Mr. Strange who was appointed as Special Commissioner in 1852 to investigate the problem of the land tenures recommended that the

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1. Renewal is known by the term *Polichezhuthu* which is a compound of the two words *Polikka* and *Ezhuthu*. The first word means to break open or to undo or to tear away, and the second word means rewriting. Literally the term means tearing of documents.

2. An elaborate treatise on the several forms of conveyance and lease then in use in Malabar was prepared by Major Walker in 1801. Much of the information given in this was derived mainly from the Brahmins. The author also drew heavily from the *Vyvaharamala*, a Sanskrit legal manual.

3. *Report of the Special Officer for the Investigation of Land Tenures in Malabar* (1947) p. 101.

Kanams should not be renewed oftener than in 12 years. Thus the rule that renewals should take place in 12 years came to be adopted since 1856. Mr. Strange is looked upon as the author of the 12 year term. The Malabar Tenancy Act XIV of 1930 gave legislative sanction for this practice.

It may be stated in this connection that the quantum of the renewal fee was always a point of dispute between the *Jenmi* and the *Kanamdar*. The *Jenmis* often demanded exorbitant renewal fees and they used the threat of eviction as a weapon to compel the tenants to accept whatever they demanded. The Agents (*Karyasthans*) of the *Jenmis* had also their odious share in the bargain with the result that the *Kanamdars* had often to pay not only what the *Jenmis* demanded but also what their agents wanted. This made the quantum of the renewal fee rather oppressive. In addition to the periodical payments the *Kanamdars* had to pay to the *Jenmis* customary dues such as *Onakazhcha, Utsavakazhcha, Perunnalkazhcha* or *Aratiyandiram* and the like on important occasions and ceremonies. The result was that what was originally the custom of levying a small fine gradually developed into an "outrageous system of forehand renting". The reports on the Malabar tenures written from time to time refer to the prevalence of scandalously high renewal fees. W. Logan, Sir C. Sankaran Nair, and Sir Charles Innes, are among those writers who have testified to the exorbitant nature of the renewal fees. The Malabar Tenancy Act 1930 prescribed the renewal fee in the case of *Kanamdars* to 2¼ years net income. The Malabar Tenancy Committee went into the question in detail. It recommended that the system of renewal in 12 years should be abolished and that the existing renewal fees should be reduced, divided into 12 equal instalments, and added on to the rent and made recoverable as rent. It may be noted in this connection that under the Kerala Agrarian Relation Act 1961 all tenants including Kanamdar have been given fixity of tenure, and hence the question of renewal has lost its importance.

Other Tenures.

Having examined the theories of the origin and nature of *Jenmam* and *Kanam* we may briefly state the other tenures or rights in land prevalent in the District and their characteristics as recognised bv law.

Kanam-kuzhikanam means and includes a transfer by a land-lord to another (called the '*kanam-kuzhikanamdar*') of garden lands or of other lands or of both, with the fruit-bearing trees, if any, standing thereon at the time of the transfer, for the enjoyment of those trees and for the purpose of planting such fruit-bearing trees thereon, the incidents of which transfer include (a) a right in the transferee to hold the said lands liable for the consideration paid by him or due to him which consideration is called '*kanartham*' and (b) the liability of the transferer to pay to the transferee interest on the *kanartham* unless otherwise agreed to by the parties.

Kuzhikanam means and includes a transfer by a landlord to another (called the *kuzhikanamdar*) of garden lands or of other lands or of both, with the fruit-bearing trees, if any, standing thereon at the time of the transfer, for the enjoyment of those trees and for the purpose of planting such fruit-bearing trees thereon.

Verumpattam is a tenure under which a lessee or sub-lessee of immovable property, whether called *verumpattamdar*, or *venpattamdar*, has expressly or impliedly contracted to hold the same under a lease with or without security for rent but does not include a *kanam*, *kanam-kuzhikanam* or *kuzhikanam*.

Customary *verumpattam* means a land held under *verumpattam* by a lessee or sub-lessee (customary *verumpattamdar*) who before the commencement of the Malabar Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1951, was entitled, by the custom of the locality in which the land was situated, to possession of the said land for a definite period of years, and for whose continuance thereon after the termination of that period, for a further period, a renewal fee had to be paid to the landlord as an incident of the tenure.

Kudiyiruppu means a holding or part of a holding consisting of the site of any residential building, the site or sites of other buildings appurtenant thereto, such other lands as are necessary for the convenient enjoyment of such residential building and easements attached thereto, but does not include a *kudikidappu*.

"*Kudikidappukaran*" means a person who has no homestead or land, either as owner or as tenant in possession, to erect a homestead and (i) who has been permitted with or

without an obligation to pay rent by a person in lawful possession of any land to have the use and occupation of a portion of such land for the purpose of erecting a homestead, or (ii) who has been permitted by a person in lawful possession of any land to occupy, with or without an obligation to pay rent, a hut belonging to such person and situated in the said land, but otherwise has no interest in the land; and "*Kudikidappu*" means the land and the homestead or the hut so permitted to be erected or occupied together with the easements attached thereto. However under the Agrarian Relations, Act, 1960 if a person has been granted the above permission after 11th April 1957 by a mortgage in possession or by a tenant from whom the land in which the *kudikidappu* is situated is liable to be resumed, or in respect of any hut not belonging to him and situated in a plantation or in any area of land which is appurtenant to a mill, factory, workshop and in connection with the employment of such person in the plantation, mill, factory or workshop, he will not be deemed to be a *Kudikidappukaran.*

Melcharth means the transfer by the landlord of part of his interest in any land held by his tenant by which the transferee is entitled to evict such tenant. In other words, it is a lease granted to a stranger entitling him to oust the tenant in possession.

Panayam is a mortgage with or without possession. If it is with possession, it is called *Kaivasampanayam, Karipanayam* or *Kozhueruka Panayam* and if without possession, it is called *Choondi* or *Thodupanayam.* In the case of *Kaivasampanayam* unlike *kanam,* there is no implied covenant for quiet enjoyment for a period of twelve years. One form of *Kaivasampanayam* is called *Undaruthi panayam* (*Unda*=eat *Aruthi*= over) under which both principal and interest are extinguished by the usufructs and the land reverts to the mortgagor free from the mortgage.

Puramkadam (*Puram*=over, above; *Kadam*=loan) is a further sum of money advanced by a *kanamdar* or a mortgage in possession on the security of the property already demised on *kanam* or mortgage. The interest on the money so advanced is deducted from the rent.

Otti is a usufructuary mortgage, the interest on which almost extinguishes the entire income of the land. The landlord merely retains the proprietary title and the right to

redeem, getting only a pepper corn rent. The *Ottidar* has got the right of pre-emption if the landlord wants to part with his right. It is also called *Veppu, Palisa-madakku, Varima-dakku, Ner-Palisa* and *Nir Ozhika Otti.*

Peruvartham is akin to *Otti* and can only be redeemed on payment of the full market value at the time of redemption.

Varam means an arrangement between the *varamdar* and the owner or other person in lawful possession of any *nilam* for the cultivation of paddy and sharing of the paddy produce and includes the arrangements known as *pathivaram, panku-varam,* or *pankupattam.* Varamdar means a person who cultivates under a *varam* arrangement.

Odacharthu is an agreement for cutting bamboos.

Vechupakuthy means a transaction whereunder a landowner transfers the possession of land to another (called the *vechupathidar*) with the following stipulations: (i) the *vechupakuthidar* shall improve the land by planting within a specified period, (ii) at the end of the period so specified (a) the land shall be partitioned between the landowner and the *vechupakuthidar* in a specified proportion; (b) upon such partition, all the rights of either party over the portion of the land set apart for the other shall stand transferred to and vest in the other and (iii) during the period between the transfer of the land and the partition thereof the *vechupakuthidar* shall pay to the landowner such rent as may be specified.

Grants of land used to be made as a reward for services rendered or for future services or for both, in the form of perpetual leases. The grant, if made to a Brahman is called *Santhathi Brahmaswam,* if made to a non-Brahman of caste equal to or higher than the grantor's, it is called *Anubhavam* or *Saswatham* and if made to a person of inferior caste *Adima* or *Kudima. Janma Kozha* (*Kozhu*—cultivation) is also a transfer in perpetuity of the right of cultivation. Where the tenure is one of service in connection with temples, it is called *Kanankari* or *Karayma* and if in addition to doing service the tenant has to produce a certain quantity of rice for nivedyam or offering to the deity, the tenure is called *Arijanmam.*

Land under Government.

Apart from such lands which have been dealt with in the preceding sections, there are lands directly under the Government. It may be noted in this connection that the system

of holding lands which are directly under Government in this District as in the rest of Kerala is the *Ryotwari* system. The *pattadar* or registered holder of the land under the *ryotwari* system is the responsible proprietor of the land entered against his name in the land Register of the village until it passes from his possession by sale or in any other legal manner. The registered *pattadar* may, as far as the Government are concerned, alienate in any manner he pleases the whole or any portion of his holding. But when the alienation is not registered, the alienator remains liable to the Government for the revenue and all other legal charges due on the land just as if no such alienation has occurred. When the alienation is registered the alienee takes the land subject to payment of the legal charges due on it and the same obligations as those under which it was held by the alienator. If a *pattadar* improved his holding he was not charged with additional assessment for such improvements, but he was not entitled to claim as a matter of right any reduction of assessment. He was bound to pay the assessment fixed on his holding, whether cultivated or fallow, in the prescribed instalments. The practice in Wynad and some other places in Malabar was to register the land in the name of the occupants. But in 1889, the High Court of Madras declared the practice illegal, and thenceforward, the *jenmis* were registered by the Collector and were held responsible for the payment of Government revenue.

When the State gave up its rights to land revenue or portion of it in favour of an individual or an institution or to remunerate persons performing certain duties the grant is termed an *inam*[1] or *manyam*. *Inams* were held revenue free or subject to favourable tenures. They could not be alienated without forfeiture of favourable tenure. The conditions of grant had in each case to be observed by the holder and the Government reserved the absolute right to adjudicate as to the proper fulfilment of those conditions. Most of the *inam* grants were subsequently enfranchised by the Inam Commissioner. The enfranchised *Inam* lands stand in the same position as *ryotwari* lands in respect of succession, transfer etc. Unenfranchised religious or charitable *inams* were resumed when the terms of the grants were not observed. In the case of *village service inams* the holders were bound to perform

1. For a detailed account of *inams* see standing orders of the Board of Revenue (Madras) Vol. II, pp. 39-79.

certain administrative duties and were styled as Adhikaris (Village Officers). The succession to these *inams* was hereditary and was governed by a special enactment. Recently *inams* attached to many of the village offices have however been enfranchised and the Village Officers are now remunerated in cash.

A *cowle* is a grant of land free of assessment for a certain period or subject to favourable assessment gradually rising to full assessment. Until the full assessment is imposed the holder is subject to the terms of the contract contained in the *cowle*. The *cowle* tenure is usually granted to induce ryots to bring under cultivation unpromising waste lands or plant trees or shrubs for green manure. Lands held under *Tope* rules are of the same nature, their object being to encourage tree planting. The terms of *cowle* reserve to the government the power of re-entry on breach of its conditions.

It is open to any individual to apply for assessed and unoccupied lands under the terms of *ryotwari* tenure. Assignment will be made after considering various factors. Those who have already occupied the land and have spent labour and money for the improvement of the land or those who have rendered military service or those who have already been in the enjoyment of usufructs of trees on payment of tax, or residential ryots generally get preferential treatment.

Escheat lands.

The properties of the Koothali Nairs taken over by the Government in 1938 on the death of the last *stani*, the only surviving member of the family, form the most important of the Escheat lands in this District. The properties are located in the different parts of Badagara, Quilandi, North and South Wynad Taluks. The total area of the escheat lands comes to about 47,000 acres of which wet, dry and garden lands together come to about 15,000 acres, and the rest 32,000 acres are forest lands. Of the 15,000 acres mentioned above, 553.09 acres lying in Wynad are waste lands. The rest 14,446.91 acres of land are held by tenants under documents executed either in favour of the late *stani* or the Government.

The forest area comprises of 3 extensive *Malavarams*—Pannikkottur (6,000 acres), Pillaperuvanna (12,000 acres) and Vallipetta (14,000 acres). Since 1948 the Government of Madras leased out cultivable lands in Vallipetta Malavaram

to bona fide peasants annually for *punam* cultivation. In 1958 the Government of Kerala decided that lands in the above *Malavaram* be leased for six years.[1] Lands in the Pannikkottur Malavaram are not leased out. Since 1948 the Vallipetta Malavaram is being farmed out to bona fide cultivators for temporary occupation every yar. An area of 120 acres has been given to the Agricultural Department for locating tne Agricultural Research Station. The remaining area is leased out to cultivators in consultation with the Taluk Land Assignment Committee. Till the end of 1960 eighty-one persons were selected for assignment of land. There is some dispute over the ownership of Pillaperuvanna Malavaram. However, the Government have decided to lease out a strip of land six miles long and one mile broad along the eastern margin of Valiapuzha in this *Malavaram.* The total area of leasable land here is about 3,840 acres of which 108 acres have already been assigned to 27 out of 589 families selected for assignment of land in this *Malavaram.* Moreover, an area of 519.365 acres has been given to the Harijan Welfare Department and 100 acres to the Kerala Ayurvedic Co-operative Society, Calicut, for starting a Herbarium. Besides, 23 families are in possession of 181.98 acres of land locally named Muthukad. The occupants of Muthukad were simply encroachers till 1956 in which year plots were leased out to them under the *Crown Grants Act* on payment of the prescribed rent. The approximate annual income from the estate is shown below.

Land Revenue	Rs. 31,100
Miscellaneous Revenue	Rs. 20,600
Total	Rs. 51,700

SURVEY

According to recorded history the Malabar area was subjected to a primitive system of land tax in 1731-32 when the Raja of Kolattiri imposed a tax of 20% of the *pattam* on all wet and garden lands of Kolattanad. In 1757, the Zamorin of Calicut imposed what is called *Kavalppanam* to meet the

1. A committee was appointed in July 1957 to report on the extent and location of cultivable lands that could be made available for assignment. On the basis of the report, the Government decided not to assign these lands but to lease them for 6 years.

expenses of the Mysore War. This tax was levied at the rate of one anna on every piece of land which required for a single crop one local para (10 seers) of seed. It is essential to point out in this connection that no system of survey obtained in the District at this time and there was therefore no means for accurate calculation of the extent of cultivated lands. Even the practical holders of lands knew nothing more about the area of land than the seed—capacity of and out-turn from their holdings.

With the establishment of British supremacy the necessity for a scientific survey and settlement of Malabar was keenly felt. In the absence of a scientific survey no land registers could be maintained and a sound system of land revenue administration could not be evolved. Mac Watters who was the Collector of Malabar in 1879 and again in 1881 wrote, "We have no register, we have no regular register of gardens, and we have no register of dry lands. In fact we have nothing whatever reliable about the land revenues and we know next to nothing about them. The rice fields cannot generally be identified by means of the only register we have got, and we have consequently no control over the apportionment of the revenues. It is believed that the poor man with the worst land pays the highest assessment".[1] This state of affairs forced upon the authorities the necessity of a scientific survey. The original survey of all Taluks except Wynad was undertaken during the period 1889-1896[2]. The Block Map and Plane Table system of survey was adopted. All the Taluks in this District have since been resurveyed.

The resurvey was completed in 1930. The Taluks of Badagara, Quilandi, Kozhikode and Ernad were resurveyed under the Diagonal and Offset system while in South Wynad Taluk the Plane Table Block Map and Traverse Survey was adopted. There are however still some unsurveyed tracts in the Taluks of Ernad, Kozhikode, Quilandi and Badagara. One town in this District has also been surveyed under the Town Survey system. All cadastral surveys are attended to by

1. Quoted in the *Malabar District Gazetteer*, p. 341.
2. The date of original survey of Wynad was 1899. It was an angular survey. In 1914 the resurvey was commenced, but it was dropped owing to the illness of most of those who took part in the survey operations. The survey was taken up later and completed in 1928.

survey parties sanctioned from time to time. The survey operations in the District are carried out by the staff of the Survey and Land Records Department under the administrative control of the District Collector.

The Survey and Land Records Department at the district level is headed by the Superintendent of survey. In addition to being the technical head of the Department at the District level he is also the technical assistant to the District Collector in matters pertaining to survey. He supervises all activities connected with survey and maintenance of revenue records and registration and transfer of registry. He also conducts entrance and final examinations of Menon's chain survey classes, and survey training classes of revenue subordinates and also instructs revenue and other officers deputed for survey training. Moreover, he hears complaints regarding survey operations under the Survey and Boundaries Act.

Under the District Survey Superintendent there is a Taluk Surveyor in each Taluk. The chief functions of the Taluk Surveyor are checking the measurement of sub-divisions, incorporation of changes in village records, replacement of missing stones, marking the boundaries in cases of disputes, etc. In addition to the Taluk Surveyors there are two Town Surveyors appointed for attending to maintenance work relating to towns. Their chief duties comprise of measurement of sub-divisions in the transfer of registry cases and land acquisition cases in the Municipalities, inspection and replacement of theodolite stones, incorporation of changes in the land records etc. It may be noted that the survey operations and maintenance of land records are carried out according to the procedure laid down in the orders (34 ABC) of the Board of Revenue Madras as no unified rules have been framed for Kerala State.

SETTLEMENT

With regard to the settlement of land revenue, it has already been stated that attempts were made by the Raja of Kolattiri and the Zamorin of Calicut in the pre-British days to impose taxes on land, but rates of assessment and the demand fixed were not based on sound principles. There were no more settlements till the Mysorean occupation. The name of Arshad Beg Khan, the Mysorean Governor, is closely associated with the settlement effected in South Malabar in 1784-85. A statement obtained by the Joint Commissioners from Jinnea,

a Brahmin formerly employed in the Mysore service, gives details of this settlement. It contains the number of paras sown in South Malabar in that year, the out-turn multiple, the gross produce and the assessment thereon. It also shows the number of productive trees of each kind (coconut, arecanut, jack and pepper trees) and the gross assessment on them. The importance of the Mysorean settlement is that "taxation was fixed on the basis of produce, a system which had been unknown in Kerala before".[1]

Soon after the District passed into the hands of the English, the Joint Commissioners appointed from Bombay and Bengal based their settlement also on the Mysorean system in spite of the inequalities of the assessment and the imperfection of the system itself. Accordingly the revenue on various *nads* was realised from the respective Rajas leaving the latter to collect it from the individuals in their *nads*. One-fifth of the revenue of each *nad* was set apart for the Raja in the form of an allowance or *malikhana*. This was followed by a revision of assessment in 1802 by Major Macleod, the first principal Collector of Malabar. But as the revised assessment was very heavy, the people rose against it *en masse* and it was cancelled in 1803 by Rickards who succeeded Macleod. Robert Rickards proposed in 1803 a new settlement based mainly on ryotwari principle.

Under the *ryotwari* settlement all arable lands, whether cultivated or not, were divided into fields and each field was assessed at a fixed rate for a term of years. The "field" was an arbitrary area, but it used to be fixed as five acres in wet and ten acres in dry land. The occupants pay revenue on the area they actually hold. The area may change from year to year as a result of relinquishment or acquisition. The occupants deal directly with the Government and are responsible only for their own respective holdings. They are severally given documents called *pattas* each of which sets forth the extent of assessment of each survey field or portion of a field in one's occupation. The *patta* was liable to revision every year to bring it into accord with the actual state of affairs. A *pattadar* thus enjoyed all the advantages of proprietorship subject only to the payment of revenue due on land held by him during the year. The land could be inherited, sold or

1. *A History of Kerala*, K. M. Panikkar, p. 410.

burdened for debt in precisely the same manner as a proprietary right provided that the person in whose name the land was registered paid the revenue due to the State.

Rickard's proposals were accepted by the Government and were embodied in the famous proclamation of 1805. The salient features of this Proclamation may be stated as follows. The *pattam* on wet lands was to be divided between the Government and the *Jenmi* in the ratio of 6: 4. In calculating the *pattam*, the quantity of seed required to sow the land and to meet the cost of cultivation was deducted from the gross produce. One third of the remainder was allotted to the *kudiyan* as *kozhulabham* or plough profit. The balance formed the *pattam*. The *pattam* on *parambas* with coconut, supari or jack trees, i.e., the gross produce less one third allowed for the *kudiyan*, was to be divided equally between the Government and the *Jenmi*. The share of the Government on dry garden lands, which were scantily cultivated, was to be half the *Jenmi's* share of *varam* on what was actually cultivated during the year. This assessment was made current for a period of twelve years. In the same year a Jenmi pymash was carried out as a preliminary step towards implementing the policy laid down in the Proclamation. Accordingly, the *Jenmis* rendered statements of their holdings consisting of details such as the number of fields in their possession, their names, extent, rent and the number of gardens specifying trees on them.

In 1817, Sir Thomas Munro who paid a visit to Malabar reported to the Government on the revenue administration of the District. On the basis of this request Graeme was appointed in 1818 to suggest improvements. He toured the District for four years and submitted a report in 1822 which was considered "on the whole the fullest and the most comprehensive report ever received of any province under this Government". Graeme suggested that wet lands were to be assessed at 65% of the *verumpattam*, (i.e. the share of the produce reserved for the *Jenmi*) or actual rent, as ascertained from deeds and by actual enquiry, discarding the *vilachalmenipattam* (i.e. the balance of the gross produce available for distribution between Government and the *Jenmi* after deductions had been methodically made for seed, cultivation expenses and the cultivator's profits) of Rickards. In respect of garden lands in South Malabar he followed Rickards and fixed one third of the gross

produce as the share due to Government. Graeme himself was asked to translate his scheme into practice. But unfortunately, he had to leave it, half done. This resulted in the prevalence of different principles in the treatment of wet, garden and dry lands till the subsequent settlement in 1900.

According to the settlement of 1900, the bulk of the land was divided into wet, garden and dry and the soil into classes or *tarams*. Garden land was defined and dry land divided into occupied and unoccupied. Assessment was levied only on the extent cultivated in each year and fallows were left uncharged. Again for the purpose of fixing assessment *desams* were grouped into three taking into consideration their proximity to markets, facilities of communication, fertility and productive capacity of soil, sanitary conditions of the localities, and liability to ravages by wild animals. In order to fix the money rate on wet lands, paddy was recognised as the standard crop. The out-turn was converted into money at a rate calculated upon an average of the prices for the 20 normal years ending with 1892-93. Of this a reduction of 15% towards cartage, 15% for vicissitudes of season etc., and 1|3 of the remainder as cultivators' share was made from the gross value and 6|10 of the remainder was fixed as Government's share. Rate of assessment on regular 2nd crops was only one-fourth of the first crop charge. For occasional 2nd crops on single crop land, the charge was one half the first crop assessment. Dry rates were even more moderate. Modern or hill paddy was considered the standard crop. One-third of the net produce went to the cultivator and the balance equally shared between *Jenmi* and the Government. Thus the Government's share came to one-third of the net produce. In respect of garden lands, a system of acreage rates varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 7 was adopted and coconut was considered the standard crop.

The settlements of 1900 were made permanent for a period of thirty years, soon after the expiry of which a resettlement was made in 1931-34. The Government had to face certain objections from some *Jenmis* against a resettlement, but they were overcome. One of the objects of the resettlement was to ensure as far as practicable an equitable distribution of the incidence of land revenue. At the resettlement the classification and grouping of wet lands were based on the productivity of the best lands in Palghat and Walluvanad Taluks. So

the lands in other Taluks were graded low, and charged lower rates than their productivity would warrant. The grouping and classification of dry and garden lands were undisturbed. The assessment on fugitive cultivation in unoccupied dry lands was paid only in those years in which there was cultivation and no flat rate was levied on such lands.

Basic Tax.

Soon after the reorganisation of States, the system of basic tax prevailing in Travancore-Cochin was extended to this District also with effect from September 1, 1957 under the provisions of the Land Tax (Amendment) Act 1957. This brought about a radical change in the principle of assessment of land tax. Hereafter land tax began to be levied at the rate of 2 nP. per cent irrespective of the nature and fertility of land. The measure lessened the burden of the tax payer. The introduction of basic tax removed the inequities in the incidence of taxation on account of tenure, crop etc. It may be noted that the average land revenue payable in the Malabar area till then had been Rs. 8 per acre whereas the basic tax now introduced was only Rs. 2 per acre. The land assessed to basic tax in the Kozhikode District and the incidence of taxation during the period from 1958 to 1961 are given below:

Statement of Land Revenue Demand 1958-60.

Year	*Area under occupation*		*Land revenue demand*	*Tax per head*	
	Wet (*Acres*)	*Dry* (*Acres*)	*Rs*	*Rs.*	*nP.*
1958—59	211,848	550,244	25,98,942	1	27
1959—60	234,207	547,642	26,31,424	1	29
1960—61	274,564	559,253	25,89,313	1	31

Plantation Tax.

Over and above the basic tax payable under the Land Tax Act 1955 it was considered necessary to levy another tax on plantations. Hence the Kerala Plantations (Additional Tax) Act 1960 was passed and it came into force on April 1, 1960. According to this Act all holders of plantations, irrespective of

their capacity, (as owners, tenants, mortgagees, trustees, receivers, managers or in any other capacity) are liable to pay, in addition to the basic tax, a plantation tax at the following rates specified in the Schedule to the Act.

Extent.	*Rate.*
1. Where the aggregate extent of plantations held by a person is below five acres	Nil
2. Where the aggregate extent of plantations held by a person is five acres or more	
(a) on the first two acres	Nil
(b) on the remaining extent	Rs. 8 per acre.

It may be noted that 'Plantation' for the purpose of this Act includes coconut trees, arecanut trees, rubber, coffee, tea and cardmom plants, and pepper vines. The extent of plantations held by a person may ordinarily be revised at the end of five years. The following table shows the revenue due from plantations in the District in 1960-61.

Plantation Tax Assessment, 1960-61*

Taluk.	*No. of plantations assessed to tax.*	*Amount of assessment.*
South Wynad	546	Rs. 1,58,270.06
Tirur	270	Rs. 13,269.13
Quilandi	173	Rs. 11,084.45
Badagara	211	Rs. 8,623.20
Ernad	111	Rs. 29,241.36
Kozhikode	336	Rs. 47,332.68
Total	1,647	Rs. 2,67,820.88

* The figures are provisional.

Other Cesses.

In addition to the land tax levied at 2 nP. per cent, land cess is levied at 1 nP. for every 5 cents of land or part thereof on behalf of the local bodies. Similarly a prohibitory assessment at 5 nP. per cent is imposed on all unauthorised occupation of Government lands, if the encroacher is not eligible for

the assignment of the land under the new Land Assignment Scheme. In cases where the encroacher is eligible to have the land in issue on assignment under the Land Assignment Rules, and if he has put in an application for the same within the prescribed time limit, assessment at the rate of 2 nP. per cent and the usual land cess alone are collected. In the non-municipal areas rent is levied at the following rates on Government lands used for the purpose noted against each.

	Purpose.	*Rate percent per annum.*	
		Rs.	nP.
1.	Retting of coconut husks	00	10
2.	Stocking of materials	3	00
3.	Use of play grounds	00	10
4.	Laying of pipe lines	00	50
5.	Putting of drainage covering and construction of cites on road margins	2	00

Again in Calicut, Ernad and Badagara the Government lands near the sea coast or within one furlong of the high water mark of the sea which are granted for agricultural purposes are charged at the rate of Rs. 12.50 to Rs. 30 per acre every year. In Quilandi and Tirur the rate of levy on such lands is fixed at Rs. 12.50 per acre every year. The annual rate of assessment on lands granted for non-agricultural purposes varies from Rs. 150 to Rs. 200 in Calicut and Ernad, from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 in Badagara and from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 in Quilandi and Tirur.

In the non-municipal areas, the rate of rent charged on Government lands granted for agricultural purposes is fixed at 4 nP. per cent on dry lands and 6 nP. per cent on wet lands. It may be noted that no standard rate of rent has been prescribed for Government lands granted for non-agricultural purposes. The rate of levy on such lands is left to be fixed according to the discretion of the authorities who make such grants. The following general principles are, however, observed as far as possible in fixing the rates of charge on such lands.

(1) Lands granted for setting up clubs for the exclusive use of Non-Gazetted Officers and those granted to educational institutions for constructing play grounds are assessed at

nominal rates. In all other cases, except in Municipalities, the rate of rent is the same as the *taram* assessment or ground rent on the site or the land rent that is being levied on similar ryotwari lands in the village or its neighbourhood. Each plot of land granted in the Municipalities is also suitably assessed subject to the concessions allowed to Non-Gazetted Officers and educational institutions.

(2) Lands granted for trade purposes are assessed with full competitive rent i.e., the rent which the site would fetch in the open market, subject to conditions stipulated by the Government.

(3) Lands for laying pipe lines are assessed with a track rent levied at Rs. 220 per mile or 12 nP. per yard subject to a minimum of Rs. 6 in major Municipal areas, at Rs. 165 per mile or 9 nP. per yard but subject to a minimum of Rs. 4 in minor Municipal areas, at Rs. 110 per mile or 6 nP. per yard, subject to a minimum of Rs. 2 in other towns, and at Rs. 82.50 per mile or 5 nP. per yard subject to a minimum of Rs. 2 in the rural areas.

Land Assignment.

Prior to the Resettlement of 1931-34 there was no trespass of Government lands as it was not the policy of the Government to encourage the conversion of Government lands into garden lands. But during the last World War, Government revised their policy and permitted Government lands to be used for cultivation under the Grow More Food Campaign.[1] But cultivators had to take the permission of the Collector before actual occupation. If the occupation was continuous, a periodical renewal of the permission of the Collector every year was necessary. But assignment of land on a permanent basis was prohibited. In 1949 this ban was partially lifted.[2] A certain section of the assignees such as political sufferers, ex-service personnel and the landless poor were allowed permanent enjoyment of lands assigned to them.

In 1957 the Government formulated a scheme according to which Government lands which were not required for Government or public purposes were to be assigned on registry. Such lands as would be required by Government on a later occasion

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1. G.O. 282|Rev. dated January 31, 1942.
2. G.O. 1523 dated June 11, 1949.

were to be leased or licensed for short periods. Government also constituted Advisory Committees in each Taluk for distribution of land. The Committees consist of official members and representatives of the various political parties. The Tahsildars were the Chairmen of the Committees in their respective Taluks. The total area of land available for assignment in the District is estimated at 13,793.29 acres. The extent of land that can be registered in favour of a single family is one acre of wet or 3 acres of dry land in plains and 2 acres of wet and 5 acres of dry land in hilly tracts. The Taluk of South Wynad is treated as a hilly tract for this purpose. The following table shows details regarding land assignment in the District till the end of May, 1961.

Land assigned in the District on the recommendation of the Land Assignment Committee

Taluk	*Total area available for registry*	*Area assigned up to May, 30 1961*	*Number of members*
Calicut	55.33	7.31	6
Badagara	6.22	5.47	16
Quilandi	1.49	1.00	10
South Wyanad	12,995.01	5,310.13	3,192
Tirur	668.81	186.39	221
Ernad	66.43	..	..
Total	13,793.29	5,510.30	3,445

Land Acquisition.

Lands required for public purposes in the Malabar area are acquired under the Land Acquisition Act (Central Act I of 1894). Generally the Revenue Divisional Officers are appointed as Land Acquisition Officers; but for the acquisition of extensive lands for big projects or the like, Special Tahsildars or Special Deputy Collectors are appointed as Land Acquisition Officers. In petty cases where the extent of land to be acquired is 1 acre or less and the probable amount of compensation payable is Rs. 1,000 or less, the Tahsildars are appointed as Land Acquisition Officers. In this District in addition to the two Revenue Divisional Officers and the six Tahsildars functioning as Land Acquisition Officers, there are six Special Acquisition Officers as shown below.*

* The posts of Land Acquisition Officer have been sanctioned only on a temporary basis

1. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition (Highways), Kozhikode.
2. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition, (Highways), Tirur.
3. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition, Kozhikode.
4. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition, Calicut-Mavur Road, Kozhikode.
5. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition, Badagara-Mahe Canal Scheme, Badagara.
6. Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition, Regional Engineering College.

Besides the Special Tahsildar for Land Acquisition (Harijan Welfare) Cannanore, is also having jurisdiction in this District for acquiring lands for Harijan Welfare Schemes.

The District Collector exercises general control over all the Land Acquisition Officers. The notifications under the Act are submitted to the Government by the Collector. The valuation is also approved by him before passing the award. The total extent of land acquired in this District during the year 1960 was 314.55 acres and the total amount of compensation awarded was Rs. 16,60,958.98.

Administrative set-up

The Kozhikode District is divided for purposes of revenue administration into two Revenue Divisions, 6 Taluks, 21 Firkas and 208 Amsams. The Revenue Department in the District is a hierarchical form of organisation with the Collector at the top. Under him are the Revenue Divisional Officers, Tahsildars, Revenue Inspectors, *Adhikaris* and *Menons*.

The major revenue functions of the Collector have already been described at some length in the previous Chapter. The Collector is assisted by a Personal Assistant in the grade of a Deputy Collector. The Tahsildar is primarily responsible for collection of land revenue. There are 6 Tahsildars in this District. They are expected to be in direct contact with the people in their respective Taluks and to have first-hand knowledge of the conditions of life in every village under their jurisdiction. The Revenue Inspectors are in charge of *Firkas*. A *Firka* comprises of a group of villages. Revenue Inspectors are interposed between the Tahsildars and the *Adhikaris* and

they supervise the work of the *Adhikaris* and assist the Tahsildars. The *Adhikaris* and *Menons* are at the lowest echelon in the hierarchy of land revenue administration. They are mostly hereditary officers. In recent years there has been a reaction against hereditary Officers and hereditary privileges. The hereditary Office of the *Adhikari* has been abolished with effect from September 1, 1961 and the present incumbents are being absorbed into the regular public service.

LAND REFORMS

Originally the relations between the landlords and tenants were regulated by custom. Early in the 19th century as population grew and the pressure on land increased there was keen competition for land. Prices also rose with the corresponding increase in the demand for land. Consequently evictions became frequent leading to unrest among the ryots. With the outbreak of the Mappila disturbances beginning in 1836 the question of land reform began to engage the serious attention of the Government and the public. In 1852 Mr. Strange was appointed to suggest whether any measures were necessary for defining the land tenures, and placing them on a more rational basis. On enquiry he did not consider the Mappila outbreaks as the outcome of repression of tenants by landlords. On his recommendation, the Sadr Adalat Court issued instructions in 1856 to the Civil Courts defining the main tenures established by usage and precedent. In the period that followed evictions steadily increased, but they were resorted to by the *Jenmis* mostly for enhancing rents rather than for cultivating the lands directly. There were universal complaints of excessive rents and renewal fees being levied by the *Jenmis*. Moreover, in regard to compensation for improvements, the tenants did not at all get adequate amounts. The cumulative effect of all these factors was to make the relations between the *Jenmis* and tenants further strained. The period saw the outbreak of many social disturbances which marred the tranquility of the District.

In 1880, on the findings of the Collector that strained relationship between the landlords and tenants was the primary cause of continual disturbances, Logan was appointed Special Commissioner to investigate the land tenures and particularly the adequacy of compensation allowed for tenants' improvements. He recommended that the actual cultivators of holdings not exceeding 25 acres of wet land or 5 acres of dry land

should be given fixity of tenure by legislation. He also suggested that rent be fixed at two-third of the net produce. On the basis of the recommendations of Logan the "Malabar Compensation for Tenants' Improvement Act I of 1887" was passed. This Act may be said to be the harbinger of later land reform measures adopted in Malabar. It sought to prevent the growing practice of eviction but experience of its working showed that it had not had the desired effect. The Government therefore undertook an investigation into the causes of the failure of the Act. It was found that the major cause of failure was the inadequacy of compensation awarded to the tenants by the Courts and that further legislation was necessary to rectify the defects of the Act. Act I of 1900 was therefore passed superseding the Act of 1887. But this Act was not effective in checking arbitrary evictions. *Melcharth* was a usual phenomenon which helped the proprietors to circumvent the provisions of the Act against eviction. It was imperative to restrict the power of granting *melcharths,* for what the tenant wanted was not compensation for quitting his holding but the right to continue in possession of it on payment. Hence was drafted the "Malabar Melcharth Bill". Unfortunately this Bill was shelved in 1901. Four years later in 1905, the Madras Government passed an Estate Land Bill which contained a provision enabling the Government to extend its operation to the Malabar District also by notification, but the provision was withdrawn before it was passed into law in 1908. In 1915 Collector Innes in his Report to the Madras Government on the working of the Compensation for Tenants' Improvement Act 1900 attributed the evils of the Malabar Tenancy system to insecurity of tenure, rack-renting, exorbitant renewal fees, social tyranny, and miscellaneous exactions.

In 1924 M. Krishnan Nair introduced a Malabar Tenancy Bill in the Madras Legislative Council. It was intended to confer fixity of tenure on all *kanamdars* and on all cultivators of the soil of certain categories. It also contained provision for fixing fair rent and renewal fees. The Bill was passed in 1926 but the Governor withheld his assent on the pretext that the measure as passed contained "various inconsistencies, ambiguities, and other grave defects of form which would seriously increase litigation and indeed render the Bill unworkable in practice if it became an Act". In order to re-examine the whole question the Government appointed the Raghaviah

Committee in 1927 to enquire into and report on the disabilities of the tenants in Malabar, the extent of unjustifiable evictions by the *Jenmis* and the necessity for protection to "*Kanamdars*" and on the best means of remedying their disabilities. The Committee after elaborate investigation prepared a careful report and a draft Bill. Their main recommendations were accepted by the Government with some variations and a Bill was introduced in the local legislature and passed as the Malabar Tenancy Act, XVI of 1930.

The Act of 1930 conferred fixity of tenure on cultivating *verumpattamdars,* subject to their payment of fair rent, and also one year's rent in advance or otherwise furnishing security for the same, if demanded by the landlord. Principles for fixing fair rent for different classes of lands were laid down under the Act. The fair rent on each holding could be determined by the parties themselves or either of them could apply to the civil court for the purpose. Fixity of tenure was conferred on *Kanamdars, kuzhikanamdars* and other intermediaries by enabling them on the expiry of the period of tenure to get renewals as a matter of right on payment of a renewal fee prescribed under the Act. The scale of renewal fees was fixed with reference to the income from land. The renewal could be arranged by the parties themselves or the *Kanamdar* and others of his category could apply to the civil courts for such renewal. No time limit was laid down for the application for renewal by the *Kanamdar*. The *Jenmi* had no right to move the court by a similar application when the *Kanamdar* did not choose to renew the tenure on the first occasion after the passing of the Act. He could however file a suit for eviction on this ground. However, the *Jenmi* got the right to sue him for renewal fees after the tenure was renewed at least once. The Act also specified the grounds under which the *Kanamdar* etc. could be evicted. They are (1) failure to pay rent by the cultivating *verumpattamdar* or to pay the advance or rent or furnish security for such rent when demanded, (2) wilful waste, denial of title of the landlord and (3) when land was required for the bonafide cultivation of the landlord. In effect the Act of 1930 secured for the tenant fixity of tenure and fair rent.

Within a few years of the working of the Malabar Tenancy Act, certain defects in the enactment became apparent. In October 1938 the Madras Government actually gave notice of

introduction of a Bill to amend the Act but on reconsideration decided on a more comprehensive legislation. The Malabar Tenancy Committee (Kuttikrishna Menon Committee 1940) examined and reported on the general question of tenancy reforms in Malabar. The main recommendations of the Committee may be summarised as follows. Fixity of tenure should be granted for all classes of land except those transferred for the cultivation of fugitive crops, pepper, tea, coffee, rubber, cinchona or any other special crops prescribed by rules. Fixity of tenure, both heritable and alienable, should be extended to all classes of tenancies except to certain *Kanams* which are really mortgages. Commercial sites or lands which are not used mainly for agricultural purposes or as *Kudiyiruppus* should also be granted fixity of tenure. The grounds for eviction of tenants should be restricted. Renewals in their existing form should be abolished and hence failure to take a renewal should not be a ground of eviction. Denial of title, waste and collusive encroachment as grounds of eviction should however be retained. No tenant should be compelled to pay more than fair rent. Different rates of fair rent were recommended for the Malabar plains and the Wynad Taluk. Fair rents should be fixed for all lands in a locality by a Rent Settlement Officer. The practice of having renewal deeds executed every 12 years should be abolished altogether, and the renewal fee should be reduced, divided into 12 instalments, and absorbed in the rent and made recoverable as rent. Failure to pay the instalments should not be a ground for eviction. The tenants who have been granted fixity of tenure and fair rent should also be entitled to claim the value of any improvement effected in their holdings. Moreover, fixity of tenure should be granted to all *Kudiyiruppu* holders and the *Kudiyiruppu* holder's right of purchase when sued in eviction should be abolished. The question of implementing these recommendations of the Committee was postponed for the duration of the war. However certain amendments were made to the Malabar Tenancy Act of 1930 in 1945, 1951 and 1954 with a view to preventing evictions and further safeguarding the interests of the tenants.

With the formation of Kerala State began a new era in the history of land reforms. In 1957 was passed the Kerala Stay of Eviction Proceedings Act (1957) which sought to provide for the temporary protection of tenants, *kudikidappukar*

and persons cultivating the land on minor sub tenures at the will of the proprietors. Most of the *kudikidappukar*, it may be noted, belong to the labouring class. A few of them at least, it is believed, were owners of land at one time. Due to the impact of changing economic and social forces they were reduced to their present position. In order to prevent arbitrary eviction of such *kudikidappukar* and to safeguard their interests, the above Act made some provisions as a temporary measure.

Another important legislative measure is the compensation for Tenants' Improvement Act 1958 (Act XXIX of 1958). This has superseded the Malabar Compensation for Tenants Improvement Act, 1900. The Act has benefited the agriculturists of the whole State. It provides for compensation at the rate of fifteen times the net annual yield for trees planted by tenants and actual value for permanent structures put up by them. The Act confers on the tenants the right to compensation for improvements effected by them, even if there is a contract to the contrary stipulated in the deed providing for lease or *otti*.

The most revolutionary piece of land reform introduced in recent times is the Kerala Agrarian Relations Act of 1960 (Act IV of 1961). The major changes brought about by the Agrarian Relations Act are briefly given below.

(1) Under this Act every tenant of a holding has got fixity of tenure and he can be evicted by his landlord only in very exceptional circumstances mentioned in the Act. Even in such cases, the landlord has to give an alternative site for the tenant before he could be evicted. The definition of tenant in the new Act has got a much wider connotation than in the Malabar Tenancy Act.[1] The term embraces classes of holders

1. Under the Agrarian Relations Act, 1960 the *Tenant* means any person who has paid or has agreed to pay rent or other consideration, for his being allowed by another, to possess and to enjoy the land of the latter, and includes: (a) an intermediary, (b) a *verumpattamdar* of any description, (c) a *kanamdar*, (d) a *kanamkuzhikanamdar*, (e) a *kuzhikanamdar*, (f) a *punam* or *kumri* cultivator, (g) a licensee in Kuttanad Taluk, (h) a *varamdar*, (i) an *odacharthudar* or any person claiming under an *odacharthudar* referred to in section 4, (j) the holder of a *kudiyiruppu*, (k) a *vechupakuthidar*, (l) the holder of a chalgeni lease; and (m) a mulgenidar, but shall not include a person holding land under a transaction known as *Irakkipanayam*.

known as punam or *Kumri* cultivators,[1] *Odacharthukars*, *Varamdars*, etc. who had not fixity of tenure under the Malabar Tenancy Act. Since these classes of cultivators also have been granted fixity of tenure, the new Act is an advance over even the most progressive of the earlier legislative measures. By making an appropriate provision in the Act regarding the presumption of tenancy in favour of tenants the Act also seeks to neutralise the actions of scheming land owners who created documents to make out that their tenants were only their agents.

(2) Under the Agrarian Relations Act the tenants are also entitled to get the fair rent in respect of their holdings fixed by the Land Tribunals set up for the purpose. Even though there were provisions under the Malabar Tenancy Act also for the fixation of fair rent, the scales of rent provided for in the new Act afford greater relief to the tenants. Since the Tribunals have only just started to function, no statistics are available in this regard.

(3) In addition under section 23 (3) of the Act the Collector is empowered to grant remissions of rent when crops like paddy are destroyed by natural calamities. As the Collector's orders in such cases are final and non-appealable the tenants can enjoy the benefits of the provisions in the Act without resorting to litigation.

(4) Under the Agrarian Relations Act tenants in possession of holdings are given the right to purchase the interests of landlords in them subject to the condition that the purchase shall only be of that extent which together with the land held by the tenant shall not exceed the ceiling area provided in the Act. The right involves the fixation of the compensation due to the Landlord and the purchase price to be paid by the tenant. The tenant is allowed to pay the compensation amount in lump sum or in instalments at his will. This provision is perhaps one of the most revolutionary measures introduced in the history of tenancy in the Malabar area.

(5) The Act provides for the scaling down of arrears of rent which accrued before April 11, 1957.

1. A punam or *Kumri* cultivator means a person who has raised crops by punam or Kumri cultivation in any year between 1953 and 1959.

(6) The Act has fixed a ceiling on the extent of land that could be owned by a family or any adult unmarried person. There are provisions for the surrender to Government of lands held in excess of the ceiling area and their distribution among the landless poor. This is a new provision of law which would go a long way in tackling the land problem in the District created by the unequal distribution and excessive accumulation of land in the hands of a few.

(7) The establishment of the Land Board and the Land Tribunals under the Agrarian Relations Act are also remarkable changes in the administration of land. They have the powers of a civil court while trying a suit under the Code of Civil Procedure of 1908.

Agrarian movements of early times and peasant organisations.

There were no organised agrarian movements in this District in early times. However, there is a view that the Mappila outbreaks of the 19th century and the Malabar Rebellion of 1921 were manifestations of deep-seated agrarian discontent. With the national movement gathering momentum in Malabar the peasants became increasingly conscious of their rights and privileges and a movement for tenancy reform took shape. Tenants' associations were formed everywhere to campaign for the stay of evictions and abolition of heavy rents. After 1935 the peasants joined the Socialist-led Kerala Provincial Congress in large numbers. In 1937 was formed an organisation of Malabar peasants known as the *Akhila Malabar Karshaka Sangham*. In 1938-39 under its auspices there was organised agitation against illegal fuedal levies in several parts of Malabar including Kozhikode. In the end the Madras Government appointed the Kuttikrishna Menon Committee (1939) to go into the question of amending the existing Tenancy Act and the feudal levies were dropped.

In recent times political parties have been active in organising peasants' organisations in the District. The Kerala Kisan Congress, the Kerala Karshaka Sangham, and the Kerala Kisan Panchayat organised by the Congress, the Communist and the Praja Socialist parties respectively have formed their organisations in almost all parts of the District.

Bhoodan.

The *Bhoodan* movement has made some progress in the District, though it is not very impressive. Towards the end of 1960 the total area of Bhoodan land came to 6,041 acres and

47 cents, the number of donors being 429. Out of this 922.37 acres were distributed to landless peasants through *Sarvodaya* workers and 689.79 acres by the donors themselves directly to tenants. 1,035.12 acres of land were not distributable as they comprised of disputable lands, uncultivable waste etc.

There are five *Gramdan* villages in this District, four in the Balusseri N.E.S. Block and one in the Kondotti N.E.S. Block. Besides the Nilambur *Kovilakam* (Palace) has donated 1,000 acres of forest lands at Pothukal in Nilambur Amsam of Wandur Block. The lands donated by the *Kovilakam* have been constituted into a *Bhoodan* colony and are in the charge of the Nilambur *Bhoodan* Co-operative Society. They are being converted into cultivable lands by contour bunding, trenching, and terracing. About 300 acres of lands have already been cleared and about 130 families settled in the colony. 73 houses have been constructed under the settlement scheme for the use of the colonists. A Co-operative Society has also been formed for the colonists.

There is also a *Danagram* in Azhinhilam Amsam of Ernad Taluk. The inhabitants of the *Danagram* have formed an organisation known as Navodaya Danagram Samithi.

Rural wages and conditions of agricultural labour.

There are approximately 119,262 agricultural labourers coming from about 59,770 families in this District. Wages of agricultural labourers have seldom been uniform. They have varied widely from village to village. The average rates of cash and grain wages paid to agricultural and skilled labourers in Malabar according to the Wage Census of November 1951 are given in the Table on the next page.

During the decade 1951-61 there has been a general increase in the wages paid to agricultural and skilled labour. The rates of wages for agricultural labourers prevailing in some select centres of the District in 1961 have been given in Chapter IX. It may be noted that though the Kerala Government have fixed the minimum rates of wages for labourers engaged in agricultural operations, they have not been enforced in Kozhikode as the notification was invalidated by the High Court on a writ petition filed by certain landlords.

There is considerable literature on the subject of the economic position of the agriculturists of the District. The Malabar Tenancy Enquiry Committee (1940) made a detailed

Average rates of Cash and Grain Wages paid to Agricultural and Skilled labourers in 1951

Category of workers	Hilly Tracts						Non-Homogeneous Tracts					
	Cash			Grain			Cash			Grain		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
1. Ploughmen	2	0	0	0	14	0	2	0	0	0	14	0
2. Sowers and Transplanters.												
(a) Men ..	2	0	0	0	14	0	1	7	0	0	14	0
(b) Women ..	2	0	0	0	9	0	0	15	0	0	11	0
(c) Non-adults ..		..			..		0	11	0	0	7	0
3. Weeders;												
(a) Men ..	2	0	0	0	14	0	1	6	0	0	14	0
(b) Women ..	2	0	0		..		0	13	0	0	10	0
(c) Non-adults		..			..		0	10	0	0	8	0
4. Reapers and Harvesters.												
(a) Men ..		..		0	14	0	1	8	0	1	4	0
(b) Women ..		..		0	9	0	1	7	0	1	1	0
(c) Non-adults ..		..			..		0	13	0	0	13	0
5. Herdsmen.												
(a) Men ..		..			..		1	2	0	1	0	0
(b) Women ..		..			..		0	13	0	0	7	0
(c) Non-adults ..		..			..		0	10	0	0	9	0
6. Other Agricultural Labourers.												
(a) Men ..	2	0	0	0	14	0	1	7	0	0	12	0
(b) Women ..	2	0	0	0	9	0	0	14	0	0	9	0
(c) Non-adults ..		..			..		0	10	0	0	6	0
7. Skilled Labourers.												
(a) Men ..	4	0	0		..		2	14	0	1	2	0
(b) Women ..	4	0	0		..		2	12	0	0	13	0
(c) Non-adults ..	3	6	0		..		2	10	0	0	12	0

enquiry into the condition of the Malabar ryot. It was found on a rough estimate that about 70 per cent of the people depended on agriculture for their subsistence, and that the average yield of cultivated lands did not exceed Rs 50 per acre. As more than 25 lakhs of people had to be maintained out of the produce of 15 lakhs acres of cultivated land, each agriculturist had on an average 15|25 or 3|5 of an acre and got a gross yield of Rs. 30 per year or about Rs. 2-8-0 a month or a less than 1½ annas a day. "All those depending on agriculture in Malabar lead a precarious existence right from the Jenmi at the top through the intermediaries down to those who live by casual labour".[1] "To sum up the present situation in Malabar the condition of the people is deplorable and they are sunk in indebtedness, poverty and misery. The result has been a natural apathy and indifference and even despondency which destroy even the desire or will to live better".[2]

It may also be mentioned in this connection that agricultural operations in the District are confined only to some months in the year and hence do not give full employment to all agricultural labourers throughout the year. It has been estimated that there is not scope for more than 100 days employment per year on the farm.[3] Under-employment is therefore a feature of agricultural labour in all but the busiest agricultural seasons, and consequently most people have to supplement their income from the farm by engaging themselves in other occupations such as transport, road making, timber cutting etc., in the slacker times.

OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

Stamps.

The administration of stamp revenue is vested in the District Collector. Stamps are sold through all the sub-treasuries, namely Badagara, Quilandi, Calicut, South Wynad, Ernad and Tirur. These treasuries are supplied with stamps directly from the Central Stamp Depot, Ernakulam. There are two kinds of stamps, judicial and non-judicial. The stamps up to the value of Rs. 100 are distributed to the public through licensed vendors. Higher denominations of stamps are sold

1. *Report of the Malabar Tenancy Committee*, Vol. I, p. 14.
2. Ibid p. 18.
3. *Some South Indian Villages—A Re-survey*, Dr P. J. Thomas. p. 329.

to the public direct from the sub-treasuries. The vendors are allowed commission of 3% on receipt stamps and 2% on other stamps. The revenue derived from the sale of stamps for three years preceding 1961-62 is given below.

Items	1957-58 Rs.	1958-59 Rs.	1959-60 Rs.
Judicial			
Court fee stamps	9,59,778	6,89,219	8,03,220
Stamp papers for copies	58,660	19,941	15,242
Total	10,18,438	7,09,160	8,18,462
Non Judicial	11,49,561	12,30,077	11,93,912
Grand Total	21,67,999	19,39,237	20,12,374

Excise Department.

The Assistant Excise Commissioner with headquarters at Calicut exercises jurisdiction over the three Districts of Kozhikode, Cannanore, and Palghat. The whole of the Malabar area is under prohibition and the enforcement of prohibition is done by the Police Department. Hence the Excise Department in this area is attending only to 'residuary work'. The various items of work to be attended to by the Excise Department under the head "residuary work" are the following: (1) administration of Madras Prohibition Act, Opium Act, Dangerous Drugs Act and the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations Act 1957, (2) issue and supervision of the several kinds of licenses granted under the above Acts, (3) proper realisation of revenue under the above Acts, (4) levy of duty on medicinal toilet preparations, (5) collection of gallonage fee on foreign liquor, Indian made foreign liquor to permit holders and clubs on rectified spirits, Methylated spirit and Methylated alcohol, and (6) collection of fees for licenses and permits.

The Kozhikode District is divided into three Excise Ranges, viz., Badagara, Kozhikode and Manjeri. The Badagara Range comprises of the Badagara and Quilandi Taluks, the Kozhikode Range of the Kozhikode and South Wynad Taluks, and the Manjeri Range of the Ernad and Tirur Taluks. Each of the Ranges is under an Inspector of Excise. One Excise

Guard is also attached to each Range. The details of the income from Excise levies in the District for 1960-61 are given below.

Statement of income from Excise levies 1960-61

Item	*Amount.*	
	Rs.	nP.
(1) Excise Duties and Gallonage on spirit manufactured in India	18,710	15
(2) Receipt from commercial spirit such as denatured spirit, rectified spirit etc.	5,530	09
(3) Duty on Opium	4,819	12
(4) Duty on medicinal preparations containing Alcohol and other Dangerous Drugs	7,431	79
(5) Miscellaneous	15,088	28
Total	51,579	43

Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax.

The Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax Department is responsible for the administration of the enactments relating to Sales Tax including Central Sales Tax on inter-state transactions, and Agricultural Income Tax along with the surcharge introduced with effect from 1st September 1957.

Prior to the formation of Kerala State Sales Tax was being administered in the Malabar area by the Commercial Taxes Department which started functioning in 1939. The Department administered the Madras General Sales Tax Act 1939, the Madras Sales of Motor Spirit Taxation Act 1939, the Madras Entertainment Tax Act 1939, the Madras Betting Tax 1935 and the Madras Tobacco (Taxation of Sales and Registration) Act, 1953. It may be pointed out in this connection that Madras State was the pioneer in the introduction of Sales Tax in India. The measure was introduced by the first Congress Ministry in 1939 to recoup the loss of revenue resulting from the introduction of Prohibition. It was then a general tax on the sale of goods in the State. Initially the rate

of tax was very low i.e., Rs. 5 per month on a turnover of Rs. 20,000 and half a percent on the turnover, if it exceeded Rs. 20,000. Later on, several changes of far reaching effect in the rates of tax, scheme of taxation etc. were introduced. The general rate of tax was 3 pies in the Rupee. Certain luxury articles were subjected to additional tax at single point in the State and certain specified articles and specified category of dealers were exempted from the tax. The sales tax was realised only from dealers whose annual turnover was not less than Rs. 10,000 per annum. The Madras Act which was in force in the erstwhile Madras area was repealed with effect from 1st October 1957 consequent on the introduction of the Travancore-Cochin General Sales Tax Act 1950 in the entire State of Kerala. This change-over has brought in a few changes in the system of taxation, viz., 40 items of commodities were brought under single point scheme of taxation. Tobacco, Petrol and M.S.O.P.* have been brought under this Scheme and made taxable under the General Sales Tax Act. From 1st July 1957 the Central Sales Tax Act came into force for the purpose of levying tax on the inter-state transactions which stood exempted till then. The Kerala Surcharge on Taxes Act came into effect from 1st September 1957, by which the levy of a surcharge of 2½% on the Sales Tax due was introduced. The introduction of another change was the grant of exemption from sales tax on Mill Cloth, Sugar and Tobacco with effect from 14th December 1957 so as to implement the Government of India's suggestions to exempt the goods on which additional excise duty was levied.

For the purpose of administration of the Commercial Taxes Department the erstwhile Malabar area was divided into 2 Divisions each of which was placed under the control of 2 Commercial Tax Officers (Malabar North and South). Under them there were Deputy Commercial Tax Officers and Assistant Commercial Tax Officers with independent assessing powers. At the time of reorganisation of the States this arrangement was changed and each District was brought under the administrative control of separate Commercial Tax Officers.

The Madras Plantation Agricultural Income Tax Act was in force in this area till 31st March 1957. For the administration of the M.P.A.I.T. Act, there was only one Agricultural

* M.S.O.P.—Motor Spirit other than Petrol.

Income Tax Officer in this District. This was sufficient, because only income from Plantations like Rubber, Coffee Tea and Cardamom was assessed to Agricultural Income Tax in the Madras State at that time. From 1st April 1957 the Travancore-Cochin Agricultural Income Tax Act was extended to this area replacing the former Plantation Act. Consequent on the extension of the Travancore-Cochin Agricultural income Tax Act, the administrative set-up was changed and 3 Agricultural Income Tax Offices in the District were formed at Kozhikode, Vayittiri and Manjeri. Formerly, only Agricultural Income Tax Officers were vested with assessing powers under the Act and there were Agricultural Income Tax Inspectors to assist them in the inspection of plots, making enquiries, etc. In view of the large number of fresh assessments to be finalised under the Agricultural Income Tax Act, the Agricultural Income Tax Inspectors were redesignated as Junior Agricultural Income Tax Officers and given powers of assessment on net assessable income of Rs. 5,000.

After the formation of Kerala and the unification of laws, the Departmental set-up in the former Travancore-Cochin State was extended to the Malabar area. The Board of Revenue is the head of the Sales Tax and Agricultural Income Tax Department and the entire State is divided into 2 Zones and placed under the Zonal Deputy Commissioners with their Head Quarters at Kozhikode and Quilon. The administrative head of the District is the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax (previously Commercial Tax Officer) who is to exercise general control and supervision of the work of the assessing Officers, in regard to assessment and collection of Sales Tax and Agricultural Income Tax. There are separate Officers for the administration of Sales Tax and Agricultural Income Tax. In Kozhikode District there are 10 Sales Tax Offices and 4 Agricultural Income Tax Offices, with the following Officers:—

Office	S.T.O.	A.S.T.O.	S.T. Inspector.
Sales Tax Office Special Circle I	1	..	2
Sales Tax Office Special Circle II (Timber)	1	1	2
Sales Tax Office I Circle	1	1	1

Office		S.T.O.	A.S.T.O.	S.T. Inspector.
Sales Tax Office	II Circle	1	1	1
,,	III Circle	1	1	1
,,	Badagara	1	1	..
,,	Quilandi	1	..	..
,,	Manjeri	1	1	..
,,	Tirur	1	1	..
,,	Vayittiri	1	..	..

	A.I.T.O.	Jr. A.I.T.O.
Agrl. Income Tax Office, Badagara	1	2
,, ,, Manjeri	1	3
,, ,, Vayittiri	1	1
,, ,, Kozhikode	1	1

The Sales Tax Officers exercise powers of assessment of dealers whose annual net turn-over exceeds Rs. 20,000 and Assistant Sales Tax Officers are the Assessing Authorities in the case of dealers whose net turn-over does not exceed Rs. 20,000 per annum.

In the case of this District a special feature is that there is a separate Assessing Officer's Office for timber dealers. So also, there is a special Circle for attending to assessment of dealers whose net turn-over exceeds Rs. 4 lakhs. Besides, the Sales Tax Officers and Assistant Sales Tax Officers there are Sales Tax Inspectors who also assist the Assessing Officers in the matter of inspections and also for the purpose of gathering statistics and other material information relating to the business activities of the dealers for the purpose of assessment. For the purpose of checking inter-state movement of goods, there are 3 Check Posts functioning at the State borders, one at Sultan's Battery, another at Vazhikadavu and the third at Vaduvanchal. These Check Posts are functioning under the charge of an Inspector. There is a separate Intelligence Squad for the detection of cases under Sales Tax and Agricultural Income Tax with jurisdiction over Calicut and Cannanore Districts.

There is a separate appellate wing for hearing appeals under Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax with one Appellate Assistant Commissioner and one Additional Appellate Assistant Commissioner in this District.

The Agricultural Income Tax Officers exercise the powers of inspection of agricultural holdings and assessments and the Junior Agricultural Income Tax Officers have been given powers of assessment upto a net assessable income of Rs. 5,000 and also inspection of agricultural holdings. The administration of Entertainment Tax by the Officers of the Sales Tax Department is peculiar to the erstwhile Malabar area alone. The Sales Tax Officers and Assistant Sales Tax Officers are vested with powers of Entertainment Tax Officers also and Inspecting Assistant Commissioner is vested with appellate powers under M.E.T. Act.

The relevant statistics to give an idea of the extent of the work done by the Department in the District for the years 1957-58 to 1960-61 are given below.

Year	*Collection G.S.T. Including S.C. and C.S.T.*	*Collection under A.I.T. and S. C.*	*Collection under M.E.T.*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1957-58	79,40,134·19	10,01,330·78	3,06,776·75	2,58,952·03
1958-59	83,74,139·13	24,50,392·76	2,88,567·71	2,66,837·93
1959-60	1,04,03,976·38	28,80,936·75	3,28,422·85	3,33,414·89
1960-61	1,12,42,119·74	27,01,288·92	4,08,658·28	3,80,967·10

Registration Department.

The Kozhikode Registration District is coterminous with the revenue District and comprises of 38 sub-districts each of which is under the control of a Sub Registrar. The list of Sub Registry Offices with details of their location is given in Appendix I. The District Registrar is the head of the Registration Department at the District level. He has general control and supervision over the several Sub Registrars and the establishments under them He also performs the duties of the Sub Registrar of the Sub District comprising his headquarters. He can at his discretion receive and register any document which might be registered by any Sub Registrar subordinate to him under section 30 of the Indian Registration Act. He can also accept for deposit wills in sealed covers under section 42 of the same Act. He is also the registering Officer

under the Societies Registration Act of 1860 and the custodian of the relevant records relating to it. He is also the ex-officio Registrar under the Birth, Death and Marriage Registration Act (Act VI of 1886) and the Special Marriage Act (Central Act XIV of 1954). He also inspects records maintained by private agencies under the Indian Christian Marriage Act, 1872.

In order to relieve the District Registrar of a major portion of his work and to enable him to pay adequate attention to his other important duties of supervision, inspection, etc., a Sub Registrar is appointed to work jointly with him. He is designated the Joint Special Registrar. Generally he is in sole charge of the Sub District comprising the District headquarters. But in Kozhikode the area being an extensive one, there are three Joint Sub Registrars, Joint I, II and III. Joint Sub Registrar I is the senior most among them. He works under the orders of the District Registrar and supervises his establishment and exercises control in all matters of detail.

The Sub Registrars who are in charge of the Sub Registry Offices are entirely responsible for the original registration of documents in their Sub Districts and custody of the relevant records thereto. The Tables A and B given at Appendix II give a comprehensive statement of the work done by the Registration Department in this District during the period 1947-59 and of its income and expenditure for the same period.

CENTRAL REVENUES

Income Tax.

The Income Tax Circle, Calicut, comprises of four Income Tax Offices. The details of their jurisdiction are given in Appendix III. They administer the Income Tax Act as well as other allied Acts governing Wealth Tax, Expenditure Tax and Gift Tax. Their work is supervised by the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax, Ernakulam. Appeals against the orders passed by the Income Tax Officers at Calicut were till recently heard by the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax at Coimbatore. A new Appellate Assistant Commissioner's Office has now been created with headquarters at Calicut. The following table shows the number of assessees and taxes collected in this Circle during the financial year 1959-60.

Kind of Tax.	*No. of assessees.*	*Amount.*
Income Tax	3,037	Rs. 58,39,000
Wealth Tax	106	Rs. 1,69,000
Expenditure Tax	nil	nil
Gift Tax	21	Rs. 46,000

Central Excise.

The administration of customs and central excise revenues in the District is under the immediate charge of the Superintendent of Central Excise, Kozhikode Circle, Kozhikode, who is responsible to the Assistant Collector of Central Excise, Kozhikode Division at Cochin. The particulars of revenue collection and commodities dealt with are given below in tabular form.

Commodities	1958-59 Rs.	1959-60 Rs.	1960-61 Rs.
1. Tobacco	8,39,582.42	2,85,821.21	5,26,573.13
2. Coffee	13,44,619.70	17,06,196.72	11,22,106.11
3. Tea	2,94,590.95	2,03,706.48	2,47,157.19
4. Package Tea	..	..	128.94
5. Matches	51,220.00	23,558.00	17,417.50
6. Cotton Fabrics	39,727.45	54,923.20	55,424.35
7. V.N.E. Oil	2,11,716.21	2,90,551.65	2,34,043.86
8. Cotton Yarn	..	..	2,677.13
9. China & Porcelain ware	..	..	3,766.95
10. Cosmetics & Toilet preparations	..	..	..
11. Vegetable Products	4,403.58	58,251.78	1,07,012.48
12. Soap	73,318.61	99,290.88	1,11,593.97
13. Glycerine	..	..	..

APPENDIX—I

List of Sub-Registry Offices

Name of Sub-Registry Office	*Location*
1. Aliyur	Aliyur
2. Ariyakkod	Ariyakkod
3. Balusseri	Balusseri
4. Badagara	Badagara
5. Chevayur	Chevayur
6. Chemancheri	Chemancheri
7. Chathamangalam	Chathamangalam
8. Codacal	Codacal
9. Edacheri	Edacheri
10. Feroke	Feroke
11. Kakkoti	Kakkoti
12. Koduvalli	Koduvalli.
13. Kottakkal	Kottakkal
14. Kuttipuram	Kuttipuram
15. Kondotti	Kondotti
16. Kalpakancheri	Kalpakancheri
17. Kozhikode. Joint I	Nagaram
18. Kozhikode. Joint II	Chalapuram
19. Kozhikode, Joint III	West Hill
20. Kakkattil	Kakkattil
21. Kuttiyadi	Kuttiyadi
22. Manjeri	Manjeri
23. Malappuram	Malappuram
24. Nadavannur	Nadavannur
25. Nadapuram	Nadapuram
26. Parappanangadi	Parappanangadi
27. Payyoli	Payyoli
28. Perambra	Perambra
29. Quilandi	Quilandi
30. Tirurangadi	Tirurangadi
31. Tirur	Tirur
32. Tanur	Tanur
33. Tamarasseri	Chelanur
34. Tuneri	Tuneri
35 Tiruvallur	Tiruvallur
36 Wandur	Wandur
37 Vayittiri	Vayittiri
38. Villiapalli	Villiapalli

APPENDIX—II

TABLE—A

Statement of work done by the Registration Department (1949-1959)

Year	Documents registered	Certified copies and miscellaneous copies		Encumbrance certificates	Private attendance	Power of attorney attested		Number of Societies Registered
						General	Special	
1949-50	64,077	4,774	172	2,333	686	224	326	10
1950-51	73,219	5,405	173	2,880	851	252	391	8
1951-52	70,342	5,730	340	2,889	866	259	353	24
1952-53	65,533	5,167	282	3,422	776	201	345	21
1953-54	75,653	4,691	187	3,583	727	176	323	15
1954-55	58,124	4,082	205	3,257	650	163	203	15
1955-56	57,899	4,973	163	4,089	678	190	262	31
1956-57	68,449	5,260	175	6,490	856	213	321	35
1957-58	61,974	4,124	199	4,893	879	236	284	23
1958-59	60,791	5,448	129	5,505	551	196	270	37

APPNDIX II—(contd.)

TABLE—B

Statement showing the receipts and expenditure of the Registration Department
(1949-59)

Year	Nazarial fees Rs.	Receipts Rs.	Expenditure Rs.	Net income Rs.
1949-50	34.50	2,44,583.84	1,98,329.19	46,254.65
1950-51	27.00	2,88,876.65	2,04,425.88	84,450.77
1951-52	12.00	3,06,204.21	2,10,313.66	95,890.55
1952-53	106.50	2,82,101.78	2,11,314.42	70,787.36
1953-54	15.00	3,03,984.33	2,20,372.37	81,611.96
1954-55	21.00	2,50,098.35	2,15,438.46	34,639.89
1955-56	41.50	2,59,318.78	2,14,487.65	44,831.13
1956-57	15.00	3,38,493.56	2,25,328.22	1,13,165.34
1957-58	20.00	3,21,695.38	2,50,121.54	71,573.84
1958-59	..	3,36,653.87	2,70,795.88	65,857.99

APPENDIX III

Jurisdiction of the Income Tax Circle, Calicut.

All persons (except those assigned to the Salary Circle, Ernakulam IV, Additional Income Tax Office, Kozhikode, and to other Income Tax Offices under section 5 (7A) of the Income Tax Act) in Cannanore Municipality in Cannanore Taluk of Cannanore District and in the Revenue Taluk of Kozhikode (excluding the portion included within the jurisdiction of the I and II Additional Income Tax Offices Kozhikode) in the Kozhikode District.

Designation of the Income Tax Officer.

I Additional Income Tax Officer Kozhikode Circle, Kozhikode.

Jurisdiction.

All persons (except those assigned to the Salary Circle, Ernakulam, IV Additional Income Tax Office Kozhikode and other Income Tax Offices under section 5 (7A) of the Income Tax) in the revenue taluks of (a) Cannanore (excluding Cannanore Municipality) (b) Taliparamba (c) Kottayam (d) Kasargod and (e) Hosdurg in Cannanore District and in the portion of the Kozhikode Municipality within the following boundaries: North by Municipal limits, East by Cannolly Canal, South by T.B. Road, Bank Road, East Mananchira Road, Bazar Road, Palayam Road, Jail Road up to the point where it meets the Cannolly Canal, West by the Sea.

Designation of the Income Tax Officer.

II Additional Income Tax Officer Kozhikode Circle, Kozhikode.

Jurisdiction.

All persons (except those assigned to the Salary Circle, Ernakulam IV additional Income Tax Office, Kozhikode and to other Income Tax Offices under section 5 (7A) of the Income Tax Act) in the revenue Taluks of Badagara, Quilandi and South Wynad in Kozhikode District and North Wynad of Cannanore District and in the portion of the Kozhikode Municipality within the following boundaries: North by T.B. Road, East by Bank Road, East Mananchira Road and Huzur Road and West by the Sea.

Designation of the Income Tax Officer.

III Additional Income Tax Officer Kozhikode Circle, Kozhikode.

Jurisdiction.

All persons (except those assigned to the Salary Circle, Ernakulam), IV Additional Income Tax Office, Kozhikode and to the other Income Tax Offices under section 5 (7A) of the Income Tax Act) in the revenue Taluk of Ernad in Kozhikode District.

Designation of the Income Tax Officer.

IV Additional Income Tax Officer, Kozhikode Circle, Kozhikode.

Jurisdiction.

All persons in the jurisdiction of the Income Tax Circle, Kozhikode, whose income is between Rs. 3,000 and Rs. 4,200 except limited companies and cases assigned to the Salary Circle, Ernakulam.

CHAPTER XII

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

Incidence of Crimes in the District.

The steady flow of immigrants into the Kozhikode District in recent times has created its own problems for the custodians of law and order. Areas covered by Vayittiri and Wandur Circles are hilly tracts with dense forests which provide scope for the cultivation of tea and other commercial products. Consequently estates employing thousands of immigrant labourers have sprung up in this area in recent times. The development projects, colonisation schemes, and the Malaria Eradication Scheme that have been launched in this District have also attracted immigrants. The immigrants include several undesirables who resort to various crimes. Since 1956 there has been some increase in the incidence of crimes in general. The important crimes reported come under the categories of murder, dacoity, robbery, house-breaking and theft including cattle theft. However, some of the crimes such as house-breaking have shown some decrease since the formation of the new District. Statistics relating to the incidence of crimes during the period 1957-60 are given below:

Nature of offence	*1957*	*1958*	*1959*	*1960*
Murder	42	34	36	47
Dacoity	1	3	1	2
Robbery	7	5	11	8
House-breaking	220	263	255	254
Theft ordinary	548	604	565	566
Cattle theft	31	46	31	65
Total	849	955	899	942

The Evolution of Police Force in the District.

Prior to the Mysorean invasion of Malabar the *'Naduvazhis'* and *'Desavazhis'* supported by their armed Nair retainers were the only authorities to maintain law and order in the District.

But this system of maintaining law and order came to an end with the invasion of Tipu when most of the Rajas of Malabar and thousands of their principal adherents left the country. In 1792 when the British took over the administration of Malabar, a police force by the name "Nayar *Sibbandi* Corps" was established and they had to serve under their native chieftains. By the end of 18th century a more regular police force was established and this force consisted of *Kolkars, Daffadars* and *Jamadars*. In 1801 the irregular and indisciplined '*Sibbandi* Corps' was disbanded and a force of 500 armed police was raised with a view to collecting the revenues of the District. Invaluable service was rendered by this force to the British Government during the critical times of the Pazhassi rebellion. In 1810 this force also was disbanded and since then the Malabar police has followed normal lines of development. In 1816 the then existing establishment of 'Police *daroghas* and *tanadars*' was abolished and a new system was introduced. According to this new system under the general control of the Zilla Magistrate and his assistants, the '*Adhikari*' was made the head of the village police, the Tahsildar of the Taluk police and Amins were appointed to discharge police duties in important towns. As there were no special constables in this new system, police duties were discharged by the ordinary revenue peons. In 1854 sanction was accorded for the establishment of a local police corps consisting of 21 native officers, 2 buglers and 150 men under the command of two military officers. In 1859 the police of Malabar was reorganised once again by dividing the Malabar District into two Police Divisions—North and South.

In 1885 the Malappuram Special Police was organised temporarily as a punitive force in the Mappila zone and all the finest recruits were drafted into this force. In 1897 this force was made permanent. It was a fine body of men holding its own with European troops in drill and signalling, and rendered a good account of itself in dealing with the Mappila outbreaks. As a result of the Malabar rebellion of 1921 the Malappuram Special Police was disbanded and it was followed by the establishment of the Malabar Special Police with six companies strong and trained on military lines. It was then armed with 303 magazine rifles, lewis guns and grenades and was equipped with motor transport and hospital arrangements. The Special District Superintendent of Police at Malappuram was appointed

as the Commandant of the Malabar Special Police. Companies of the Special Police were also deputed on duty outside the District to meet emergencies. In early days the recruitment to this force was confined only to Hindus and Christians of the West Coast.

Organisation and functions of the Police Force in the District.

The administrative head of the Police Department in the District is the Superintendent of Police with headquarters at Calicut. An officer of the I.P.S. Cadre, he is directly under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Northern Range, who has also his headquarters at Calicut. Even though legally the police force is under the control of the Collector of the District as far as the maintenance of law and order is concerned, it is the duty of the Inspector-General of Police, Kerala State, assisted by the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Northern Range, to guide, control and supervise the activities of the police force and keep up its efficiency. The police force in this District comes under three categories viz., Local Police, Malabar Special Police and the District Armed Reserve.

Local Police. The most important functions of the Local Police are the prevention and detection of crimes, the maintenance of law and order and apprehension of offenders. But they are also expected to attend to other functions such as escorting and guarding of prisoners, prosecution of criminals, guarding the treasuries, and guarding the public or private property of which they may be placed in charge. The occurrence of political disturbances and tensions among communal groups in modern times has also contributed much to a substantial increase in the functions of the police. They have also to perform many other duties such as the control of traffic, censorship of plays and other performances and serviee of summons. Such duties as aid to the pilgrims, passport and naturalisation enquiries, verification of character and antecedents of candidates for appointment to the military and other government services are also entrusted to them.

The Superintendent of Police is the head of the Local Police in this District. He exercises general supervision and control over his subordinates. He is the drawing officer in respect of the pay and travelling allowances of all non-gazetted officers under him. He has also got the powers to transfer all officers of and below the rank of Sub-Inspectors and to award punishments to any of his subordinates except Sub-Divisional Officers.

The Superintendent of Police is assisted in the Local Police by two Sub-Divisional Officers or Deputy Superintendents of Police who supervise and control the work of the subordinates in their Sub-Divisions. The two Sub-Divisions are Kozhikode Sub-Division with headquarters at Calicut and the Malappuram Sub-Division with headquarters at Malappuram. Each of these Sub-Divisions has been sub-divided into Circles which are under the charge of Circle Inspectors. Under the Kozhikode Sub-Division there are four Circles viz., Kozhikode Town, Badagara, Quilandi and Vayittiri. Under the Malappuram Sub-Division also there are four Circles viz., Wandur, Chevayur, Tirur and Manjeri. These Circles have, under them, stations ranging from four to six, each under the charge of a Sub-Inspector of Police. Altogether there are thirty-six police stations. In addition there are nine outposts each of which is under the control of a Head Constable with four to six police constables to assist him. The list given as Appendix I at the end of this Chapter contains the names of Circles, Stations and Outposts in this District.

The following table shows the strength of the different cadres of the Local Police in the Kozhikode District as it stood in September 1961.

Superintendent of Police	..	1
Deputy Superintendents of Police	..	2
Assistant Superintendent of Police	..	1
Circle Inspectors	..	9
Sub-Inspectors	..	51
Head Constables	..	105
Police Constables	..	726

Malabar Special Police. The Malabar Special Police popularly known as the M.S.P. is a quasi-military force. It is stationed at Malappuram which is 30 miles away from Calicut. It assists the local police in the maintenance of law and order. It is also used as a deterrent to curb the activities of subversive elements against the Government and to prevent organised crimes. It may also be assigned any other duty such as guarding of vulnerable points, anti-smuggling activities etc. In emergencies it may be called upon to maintain law and order within the country in close co-operation with the other armed forces.

The Malabar Special Police was formed during the Rebellion of 1921 with a strength of 6 British Officers, 8 Subedars, 16 Jamadars, 6 Havildars and 600 Constables with its headquarters at Malappuram in order to enable the local police to suppress the Malabar Rebellion of 1921. It was formed in six companies to work under the District Superintendent of Police of South Malabar. The first selection and recruitment was made by Mr. Hitch Cock, the then District Superintendent of Police of South Malabar, from the Malappuram Special Police and from the discharged veterans of the first World War. In 1932 one of the 6 companies raised during the Rebellion was disbanded and the force was reorganised with four active companies. During the time of the Second World War the force was rapidly expanded from 4 to 16 active companies in order to meet the new demands of the war and the political unrest in the country. In 1946 the strength of this force was reduced to 12 companies due to the dismissal of 950 Sepoys as a result of a strike conducted by them. After the formation of Kerala State in 1956, six active companies were taken by the Madras Government and the remaining six companies were allotted to Kerala State. During the time of the state-wide agitation known as *Vimochana Samaram* which took place in 1959 three new companies were added to this force. One of these was formed of ex-Service men and the other two of personnel received on transfer to the Malabar Special Police from the Special Armed Police of Andhra Pradesh. Thus at present there are nine active companies in this force.

The Malabar Special Police is under the control of a Commandant who is not below the rank of a District Superintendent of Police in status. Immediately below the Commandant there are Adjutants and Assistant Commandants who are equal to Deputy Superintendents of Police in status. Below the Adjutants and Assistant Commandants there are Company Commanders who are equal to Circle Inspectors in the local police and under the Company Commanders are the Platoon Commanders who are equal to the Sub-Inspectors of the Local Police. Thus the hierarchical arrangement of the Malabar Special Police has been made in the same way as it has been done for the Local Police in the District.

The Malabar Special Police was utilised several times very successfully for maintaining law and order inside as well as outside Kerala. Whenever the local situation demanded the

service of this force in any part of the country, the required strength of the Malabar Special Police was deputed in sections, platoons and companies. There were occasions when the entire companies of this unit were taken out on special duty at a time for maintaining law and order in various parts of the country. Thus the Malabar Special Police has rendered meritorious services to the State in connection with the maintenance of law and order. According to H.G.O. Barbosa who was the Commandant of this force from 1950 to 1954, the success of this force was mainly due to the splendid military material afforded by the men of Malabar, the long line of splendid Commandants, the high quality of the Junior Officers, the Force's close association with the detachments from the crack British regiments once stationed at Malappuram and above all the service conditions adopted for the men belonging to this Police Unit till 1952.

As regards the recruitment and training of the personnel in the Malabar Special Police it may be noted that the candidates are called from the Employment Exchanges for interview. After the interview those who are found to possess the prescribed minimum qualification are selected by the Commandant. After a training for a period of ten months in this Unit, the recruits are posted for duty in active companies after they pass a test conducted at the end of the training.

The following table shows the strength of the Malabar Special Police as it stood in September 1961.

Commandant	..	1
Assistant Commandants	..	3
Armed Police Inspectors	..	12
Company Havildars Major	..	10
Havildars	..	128
Constables (including Lance Naiks)	..	1292
Bugler Boys	..	13
Police Drivers	..	49

Of the above strength, one Company strength consisting of the following categories of personnel is posted to Cannanore District.

Armed Police Inspector	..	1
Armed Police Sub-Inspectors	..	4
Company Havildar Major	..	1

Havildars	..	10
Constables (including Lance Naiks)	..	142
Police Drivers	..	8
Bugler Boys	..	2

District Armed Reserve. The District Armed Reserve Unit is under the immediate control of a Reserve Inspector, who is assisted by four Reserve Sub-Inspectors and three Jamadars. Below the Jamadars there are 18 Head Constables and 109 Constables. The Reserve is intended to be utilised to meet the abnormal situations which the local police cannot tackle. Armed guards and escorts are also provided from this unit.

District Special Branch. Apart from the three units of police mentioned above, there is also a District Special Branch under a Circle Inspector to deal with confidential matters.

District Intelligence Bureau. The District Intelligence Bureau for the erstwhile Malabar District, which started functioning in 1932 with a staff of one Sub-Inspector and four Head Constables, was under the direct supervision of the District Superintendent of Police. Circle Inspectors were also in charge of the District Intelligence Bureau at intervals. In 1956, the Bureau was reorganised with a staff of one Sub-Inspector, and 4 Head Constables. The primary duties of the Bureau at present are to collect, record and distribute information regarding crimes and habitual criminals. The Bureau collects weekly information on crimes reported by Station House Officers, publishes a weekly crime and occurrence sheet, and gives directions to the investigating officers about the probable criminals in unlocated cases of importance. At the end of each month crimes are discussed and reviewed in the "monthly Crime Review". History sheets of Dossier criminals and various indices are also maintained in the Bureau to study the movements and activities of dangerous criminals and to keep a watch over them. Besides, the Bureau publishes fortnightly Prohibition Sheets and monthly Prohibition Reviews.

The staff in the Bureau are trained in "Scientific Aid to Investigation" to develop latent finger and foot impressions left by the criminals at the scenes of crimes and the services of the staff are often utilised by the investigating officers

when a case is reported. The Bureau is useful to the Police Officers of the District to study crimes and control investigation.

Prohibition Squad. The Madras Prohibition Act (1937) was enforced in the erstwhile Malabar District in 1947 and a separate Prohibition Department was constituted with the experienced officers of the Excise Department and newly recruited personnel. The Prohibition Department was merged in the Police Department with effect from the 1st of November 1955. Offences under the Prohibition Act have been made cognizable and since the merger all contraventions against the Act are being registered as any other cognizable offence under the I.P.C.

Traffic Staff. There is a Traffic Police Unit with one Sub-Inspector, 3 Head Constables and 45 Police Constables for the enforcement of traffic rules in this District. The primary duty of this staff is the enforcement of the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act and Rules and to prosecute offenders. The traffic staff is vested with the power to detect offences relating to traffic rules and to prosecute offenders.

Railway Police. The prevention and detection of crimes in trains and along the Railway track and premises are the normal duties of the Railway Police. The Railway Police in the District consists of 1 Sub-Inspector, 3 Head Constables and 26 Police Constables. The entire Railway Police Unit in the State is under the administrative control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Southern Range, C.I.D. and Railways, Trivandrum. For the purpose of its administration and control there is a Railway Police Station at Calicut. The expenditure on account of Railway Police is borne partly by the Railway Administration and partly by the State Government.

Home Guards. From December 1960 a Home Guard Unit has begun to function in this District. The strength of this Unit is 108. The administrative staff consists of one Circle Inspector, one Sub-Inspector and two Havildars.

Fire Service Unit. In Kozhikode District there is a Fire Service Unit under the control of a Divisional Fire Officer with headquarters at Calicut. The District Superintendent of Police exercises supervisory and disciplinary control over this

Unit. The District Fire Officer has control over the whole of erstwhile Malabar area and the fire stations at Calicut, Cannanore, Tellicherry and Palghat are placed under him. The personnel subordinate to the District Fire Officer include 4 Sub-Officers, 18 leading firemen, 4 Driver Mechanics, 26 firevan drivers, 81 firemen and 4 Telephone operators. This Unit has also four mobile tank units, 4 Tender, 7 Trailer pump and 4 Ambulances.

Police Co-operative Society. A Police Co-operative Society by name "Martin Police Co-operative Society Ltd.," was formed as early as 1932 exclusively for the benefit of the members of the staff of the Police Department in this District. Officers and Constables in the Malabar Special Police are also allowed to become members of this Society. The Society is intended to encourage thrift, self-help and co-operation among the members. The liability of its members is limited to the share capital subscribed by them. The value of one share is Rs. 5 and every one should take at least one share in order to become a member. A loan of Rs. 16 per share is granted to the members on application and the amount is recovered from their pay by easy monthly instalments with interest. The District Superintendent of Police is the ex-officio President of the Society and his Personal Assistant the ex-officio Vice-President. In 1961 the Society is having 1,668 members with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 46,687.

Malabar Police Club. The Police Club, which was opened in 1934 is located at Calicut in a rented building situated very near to the District Police Office. It is meant for the use of officers and above the rank of Sub-Inspectors of the Local Police and Jamadars of the Armed Reserve. The District Superintendent of Police is the President and the Reserve Inspector is Honorary Secretary of the Club.

Calicut Police Literary and Dramatic Association. A Literary and Dramatic Association was formed in 1958 for the Police officials in the Calicut town area, and it functions within the premises of the District Police Office. The District Superintendent of Police is its President. The object of the Association is to provide the necessary scope and facility to the members in developing their literary and dramatic talents and also to improve the police—public relationship.

Kshema Niketan. In 1959 a Kshema Niketan was formed with the object of starting production units of cottage industries which will enable the families of the policemen to earn a subsidiary income. It also helps to provide canteen facilities and sports amenities to policemen and their families. The cultural and social activities of the policemen and their families are also being promoted through the Kshema Niketan. It is managed by a committee consisting of 8 selected members in which the Reserve Inspector is the Chief Executive Officer. The District Superintendent of Police is authorised to administer the funds which consist of the contributions received from the State Government and also the money realised from the performances organised by the men with the sanction of the Government.

Amenity Fund for the Armed Reserve. An Amenity Fund for those working in the Armed Reserve at Calicut was started in 1946 by raising contributions from the Armed Reserve Men and the staff of the District Police Office, Calicut. Loans are granted from the fund to the men of the Reserve to meet unforeseen expenditure and the amounts are recovered from their pay in the succeeding month. The accounts of the funds are maintained by the Reserve Inspector, Calicut.

Temple. There is a temple by the name "Alankara—Parameswari Temple" in the police land near the Armed Reserve lines in Calicut. There is no authentic information about the origin of this temple. It is believed that this particular place was previously occupied by the army of the Calicut Zamorin before the advent of British rule in this area and that a temple was built by one of the Zamorins for the worship of the Hindu Battalion stationed there. When British rule was established in the area, the place along with the temple was handed over to the force stationed at the place by the British authorities.

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

Before the 19th century punishment through imprisonment was very rare in Malabar. In the early part of the 19th century a prison was established in Calicut town with a view to accommodating the convicts on the roads. No attention was bestowed in those days on the welfare of prisoners with the result that in the middle of the 19th century the death rate

among the prisoners was exceptionally high. The conditions in the old jail near the French loge at Calicut were notoriously unhealthy and epidemics of cholera and small-pox were quite frequent. In 1869 the Special Sub-Jail at Vayittiri also was established. In 1892 the old jail near the French loge was abolished. In 1933 the most important jail in the District was the Special Sub-Jail at Calicut which was placed under the direct control of the Inspector-General of Prisons, Madras and it was intended to accommodate 114 prisoners of all categories.

LOCATION OF JAILS AND LOCK-UPS AND PRISON ORGANISATION

The Prison Department in the Kozhikode District is under the direct administrative control of the Inspector-General of Prisons, Kerala State. There are six Sub-jails in the District viz., the Special Sub-jail, Calicut; Ordinary Sub-Jail, Badagara; Ordinary Sub-jail, Quilandi; Sub-jail Vayittiri; Sub-jail, Manjeri and Sub-jail, Tirur. Brief accounts of these institutions are given below.

Special Sub-jail, Calicut. The Special Sub-jail is located at Puthiyara in the eastern part of the Calicut town. There is no clear and authentic record as to the year of the establishment of the jail. However, from the Register of Public Works Department Buildings it is seen that the quarters of the Superintendent and the jailer were constructed in 1869. It is therefore presumed that the jail must have been established about that year. It is intended for keeping remand and undertrial prisoners sentenced to not more than three months. The authorised accommodation of the jail is for 121 males and 6 females. However, the population of the jail for the last three years has always exceeded the authorised accommodation. The daily average strength in 1957-58 was 151, in 1958-59, 211 and in 1959-60, 190. A separate section has been provided for the accommodation of female prisoners. Juvenile and delinquent prisoners and political prisoners are not confined in this jail. The jail is placed under the control of a Superintendent who is also the Assistant District Medical Officer of Kozhikode. The other members of the staff include one Jailer, one Assistant Jailer, three Head Warders, fourteen Warders and two female Warders.

The jail is unlocked at day-break every day. Prisoners are given freedom to write letters to their relatives and friends. Select newspapers are also issued to them. Twice a month they can have interviews with their relatives and friends in the presence of a Jail Officer. They are given moral and religious instruction by specially selected personnel. Reading facilities also are given to them in the night up to 9 p. m.

There is a panel of visitors to the jail appointed by the Government. This panel includes one M.L.A., the M.P. from the locality, two newspaper representatives, one Medical Officer, one lawyer of the place and one woman social worker.

Sub-jail, Badagara. The Badagara Sub-jail is located at the Taluk headquarters of Badagara and is contiguous to the Taluk office and Sub-treasury building. It is placed under the Deputy Tahsildar, Badagara who is the ex-officio Superintendent of the jail. The duty of guarding the prisoners in the jail is attended to by the local policemen attached to the Badagara police station. There are two male warder peons in this jail besides the local policemen. Female warders are also employed whenever female prisoners are kept in the jail. This jail is intended to accommodate 14 prisoners. Only remand and under-trial prisoners are confined here. Female prisoners and juvenile delinquents are kept separate from other prisoners.

There are seven non-official visitors who inspect the sub-jail regularly. They are expected to contact prisoners and offer instructions and suggestions. Their general remarks are also recorded in the visitors' book kept in the jail.

Sub-jail, Quilandi. The Quilandi Sub-jail is located at Pantalayini Amsom and attached to the Taluk office at Quilandi. The Deputy Tahsildar of Quilandi is the Superintendent of this jail. In addition there are two warders. Accommodation for eight male and two female prisoners has been provided. Only remand and under-trial prisoners are confined here. Arrangements have been made for the daily visit to this jail by the Superintendent and a medical officer. Adequate medical aid is given to the prisoners, whenever it is necessary. A board of visitors consisting of non-official members has been set up, and they visit the prisoners frequently. Arrangements are also made for the supply of newspapers to the prisoners.

Sub-Jail, Vayittiri. This jail is located in the Taluk Office building at Vayittiri. It is supposed to have been established in 1887. The Deputy Tahsildar at Vayittiri is its Superintendent. There are 8 cells in the jail and the sanctioned accommodation is 16. Only remand prisoners and en-route convicted prisoners are confined here. Women prisoners are confined separately. Female warders are appointed while the female prisoners are admitted. Arrangements have been made for the frequent visit to this jail by the official and non-official visitors who are appointed by the Government.

Sub-jail, Manjeri. This Sub-jail is attached to the Taluk Office at Manjeri. The Deputy Tahsildar at Manjeri is its Superintendent. Two warder peons are appointed for attending to the jail duties. Patrolling duties are done by the local police belonging to the police station at Manjeri. The jail provides accommodation for 24 remand and under-trial prisoners. Female prisoners are confined separately and separate female warders are appointed in order to watch over them. A panel of honorary visitors has been appointed by the Government in order to visit the prisoners frequently.

Sub-jail, Tirur. This is located in Trikkandiyur Amsom near Tirur Railway Station and attached to the Taluk Office. The Deputy Tahsildar at Tirur is the Superintendent of the prison. Under him there are two warders and a scavenger. The sanctioned accommodation here is for 24 prisoners. Only remand and under-trial prisoners are admitted here. As in other sub-jails female prisoners are kept separately under the supervision of a female warder. The prisoners are often visited by the official and non-official visitors appointed by the Government.

Measures for the welfare of the prisoners

In recent times several prison reforms have been introduced in the jails in Kerala State with the object of promoting the methods of correctional treatment of prisoners. The Inspector-General of Prisons has been empowered to grant emergency parole leave up to a maximum of 20 days to the prisoners in case of the death of a relative. The Superintendents are empowered to grant such leave for a maximum of ten days. Arrangements are made for giving religious and moral instruction to the prisoners by eminent persons of high character on prison holidays. Well behaved prisoners are allowed to keep note

books and pencils of their own. The rules regarding writing and receiving letters and interviews by prisoners have been liberalised. Weighing of prisoners is done once in a month and that of in-patients in the jail hospitals once in seven days. The prisoners are given special feasts on six important festive days every year viz., Onam, Vishu, Ramzan, Bakrid, Christmas and Easter. The system of supplying shirts to the prisoners has geen introduced as against the age old practice of supplying jackets. All public holidays have been declared as jail holidays. Government have sanctioned the extension of free legal aid to prisoners who are extremely poor, the expenditure connected with it being met by the Government. The benefit of Ayurvedic treatment has also been extended to them. With a view to training the warder establishment of the jails properly, a new training school for warders at the state level has been started to recruit and train warders keeping in view the new approach that is expected in the administration of jails.

Probation Department

With the formation of Kerala State the Probation Department of the erstwhile Malabar District was brought under the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Prisons, Kerala State. But in the absence of any statutory provision for the working of the Probation system in the former Travancore-Cochin State, the Probation Department in the Kozhikode District continues to be administered under the provisions of the Madras Probation of Offenders Act, 1937, the Madras Borstal School Act, the Madras Children Act (1920) and Madras Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act (1930). The Probation Department in the District is under the District Probation Officer with headquarters at Calicut. His functions are manifold. He is in charge of the supervision of ex-convicts released prematurely under the Advisory Board Scheme. He is expected to conduct preliminary investigations into cases, pay visits to the probationers, submit preliminary enquiry reports to the courts, supervise the juveniles, conduct frequent visits to ex-Borstal inmates to render necessary advice and help, and to conduct enquiries to find out the home conditions and environments of pupils of Certified Schools and Borstal inmates proposed to be released on license. The courts are making use of the Probation Officer for preliminary investigations.

Certified School, Calicut

There is only one Certified School in Kozhikode District. It is known as the Balamandir, Calicut. It comprises of three sections viz., a Junior Certified School for Boys, a Junior Certified School for Girls and a Senior Certified School for Girls. Up to 1957 the institution was under the management of the Poor Home Society, but as a result of certain allegations against the management of the school a Committee was constituted by the Government to enquire into the matter and in pursuance of the recommendation of the Committee the management of the school was taken over by the Government. In the same year the administrative control of the Certified Schools in the State was transferred from the Education Department to the Prisons Department. Consequently the Inspector-General of Prisons acted as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. On April 24, 1960 the management of the Balamandir was again transferred to the Poor Home Society.

General Education up to VIII Standard is provided in the Upper Primary School attached to the Certified School. The school has six working days per week and 3½ hours of general education each working day. Law Classes are conducted and punishments given wherever necessary. Moral instruction classes are also conducted on Sunday afternoons. Vocational training is given to all pupils for three hours every day. The boys are given training in Tailoring, Carpentry, Gardening, Agriculture, *Mridangam*, Weaving, and Soap making while the girls are trained in Tailoring, Spinning, Embroidery, Dance, Music, Book binding and Domestic work. In 1960-61 41 boys and 17 girls were discharged from the schools attached to the Balamandir. Out of this 26 boys and 8 girls were illiterate at the time of their admission but all of them had acquired literacy by the time they were discharged from the Schools.

The following table shows the number of pupils admitted to and discharged from the Balamandir during 1960-61.

	Boys.	*Girls.*
Number remaining at the beginning of the year	295	208
Number admitted by direct committal	43	18
Number received by recapture	25	..
Number returned from leave	193	115
Number returned from hospital	19	19
Number returned from camp	3	..

In the same year 5 boys and 12 girls were undergoing Secondary Education and one girl was attending Teachers' Training School. Out of the two girls and one boy who appeared for the S.S.L.C. Examination, the boy and one girl passed. The boy was sent to the Teachers' Training School and the girl to the Physical Education College.

The Kozhikode District After Care Association

The Kozhikode District After-Care Association was established in 1938. It is intended to give such help as may be needed, on release, by persons convicted of criminal offences, to make efforts to reclaim habitual offenders from a life of crime, to enable prisoners after release to lead honest and respectable lives, to make special arrangements with a view to preventing casual and juvenile offenders from becoming habituals, to promote legislation and the application of existing laws and to secure that sentences of punishment shall be passed only in cases which cannot adequately or appropriately be dealt with in any other way, and above all to collect funds and do all such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the objects mentioned above.

The Association is administered by an Executive Committee consisting of one President, three Vice-Presidents, one Honorary Secretary, one Honorary Joint Secretary, one Honorary Treasurer and fifteen other members. Its members have been divided into three categories viz, Patrons who contribute a minimum of Rs. 1,000 in one lump sum, Life members who contribute a minimum of Rs. 200 in one lump sum, and Ordinary members who pay Rs. 5 per year. In 1959 there were altogether 306 members—one Patron, 65 Life members and 240 Ordinary members—in this Association.

The After-Care Association runs a Probation Hostel at Calicut known as the "Kongattil Raman Menon Home" established in July 1953. It is intended to provide accommodation and to impart vocational training to ten probationers. It is said that this institution is the first of its kind in India. A tailoring class is being conducted in the Hostel with a view to providing vocational training to the inmates. To help the inmates to utilise their leisure hours in some constructive activity, gardening has been encouraged. In February 1960 a poultry unit was started here. The inmates are supplied with

newspapers and are also allowed to make use of a nearby library. As a recreational amenity they have also been provided with a ring tennis court.

The Association has an impressive record of service to its credit. Many ex-convicts were helped by it to get suitable jobs in various departments and concerns. A good number of them were rehabilitated by being given proper financial aid to enable them to earn their livelihood independently by starting some business or other.

After Care Home, Calicut

There is an After Care Home at Calicut by name "The After Care Home for Adolescents (Females)". It is meant for the care and rehabilitation of young girls who are discharged from correctional and non-correctional institutions viz., Certified Schools and Orphanages. It was started in a rented building on April 5, 1960. The management of the institution is vested in a Managing Committee comprising of both official and non-official members appointed by the Government. The Superintendent of the Home is the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Managing Committee. In order to assist the Superintendent there is a literary teacher and a Craft Instructor cum Matron.

In 1960-61 26 girls were admitted into the Home and all of them were girls transferred from the Balamandir, Calicut. Among them eleven were attending classes in local Schools. Two inmates were rehabilitated and another was given in marriage. In September 1961 the strength of the Home was 24. 100 girls can be accommodated here. Proposals have also been made for starting a Production Unit-cum-Training Centre at the Home. Reading and recreational facilities are given to the inmates by supplying them with dailies, weeklies and magazines.

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL COURTS AND JUSTICE

Historical background

In the early and medieval periods there was neither an organised system of courts nor a written code of laws in the District. The origin of the modern judicial system may be traced back to the early days of British administration. In December 1792 soon after the British took over Malabar a

temporary Court of Justice presided over by each of the Joint Commissioners in turn was set up at Calicut. This Court was abolished three months later when Mr. Farmer was appointed Supravisor of Malabar. Subject to the appellate authority of the Supravisor his assistant was vested with civil and criminal jurisdiction in Calicut and its vicinity and the Northern and Southern Superintendents with similar powers in their own divisions. Seven local *Darogas* were established on July 1, 1793 in different parts of Malabar. Three of these were at Quilandi, Tanur and Tirurangadi in the present Kozhikode District. In 1802 an important step was taken in the direction of the separation of the judicial from the executive administration. A Provincial Court was established at Tellicherry presided over by three Judges two of whom went on periodical circuits. Zilla Courts were also established at Tellicherry and Calicut. All these courts were abolished in 1845 and their places were taken by the Civil and Sessions Courts of Tellicherry and Calicut, the Subordinate Court of Calicut and the Principal Sadr Amin's Court at Tellicherry. In 1875 the designation of the courts was changed. The Civil and Sessions Judges became the District and Sessions Judges of North and South Malabar, and the Principal Sadr Amin the Subordinate Judge. The whole of the erstwhile Malabar District thus came to be divided into two District Judgeships of North and South Malabar with headquarters at Tellicherry and Calicut respectively. Subsequently a Subordinate Court was set up at Calicut and Munsiff's Courts in such places as Manjeri, Parappanangadi, Tirur, Calicut and Vayittiri, though some of these Courts were later abolished.

Organisation of Civil Courts and the Administration of Civil Justice

The highest judicial authority in the Kozhikode District is the District Judge who presides over the District Court at Calicut. The District Court is authorised to exercise original as well as appellate jurisdiction and it can hear appeals from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The authority to exercise general control over all Civil Courts along with their establishment and to inspect the proceedings of these Courts is vested in the District Judge.

Next to the District Judge in the hierarchy come the

Sub-Judges and Munsiffs. The Sub-Judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction. He tries original cases the value of which does not exceed Rs. 5,000. The Munsiff exercises only original jurisdiction and he tries original cases the value of which does not exceed Rs. 5,000.

The Courts subordinate to the District Court, Calicut as it stood on the 31st March, 1959 are as follows:—

	Courts		*Station*
1	Sub Court (two benches)		Calicut
2.	Sub Court (one bench)		Badagara
3.	Munsiff's Cours	(two benches)	Calicut (I & II)
4.	Do.	(one bench)	Parappanangadi
5.	Do.	(one bench)	Manjeri
6.	Do.	(one bench)	Tirur
7.	Do.	(one bench)	Nadapuram
8.	Do.	(one bench)	Badagara
9.	Do.	(one bench)	Payyoli
10.	Do.	(one bench)	Quilandi

Statistics of Civil Courts.

The total number of cases pending in the various Courts in this District at the beginning of the year 1958-59 was 11,605. During that year 18,637 suits were instituted and 167 suits were received otherwise. Of them 15,645 suits were disposed of, and the balance of suits pending at the end of the year was 14,764.

Of the 18,637 suits instituted, 10,189 were for money or movable property, 3,753 were for immovable property, 3,621 related to mortgages and 1,074 were for specific reliefs and other rights.

Of the suits instituted, 6,598 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100, 11,319 were of the value exceeding Rs. 100, but not exceeding Rs. 1,000, 635 were of value above Rs. 1,000, but not exceeding Rs. 5,000, 60 were of the value above Rs. 5,000, but not exceeding Rs. 10,000, and 25 were of value above Rs. 10,000. The total value of suits instituted was Rs. 50,20,041.

Of the 15,646 suits disposed of, 517 were without trial, 4,659 *ex-parte*, 3,137 on admission of claims, 4,658 by compromise, 2,643 after full trial and 31 transferred.

There were 1,297 appeals (including miscellaneous appeals) pending at the beginning of the year 1958-59. During the year 1958-59, 789 appeals were instituted and 922 were disposed of. The balance pending at the end of the year was 1,164.

Of the 922 appeals disposed of, 351 were confirmed, 136 modified, 113 reversed, 61 remanded for retrial and 260 dismissed or not prosecuted.

Organisation of Criminal Courts and the administration of Criminal Justice

The principal Court of original criminal jurisdiction in the District is the Sessions Court which is presided over by the Sessions Judge. In actual practice the Sessions Judge is the District Judge and for the purpose of the criminal jurisdiction exercised by him the District is referred to as the Sessions Division. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his Court by Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of Judicial Magistrates. The post of Assistant Sessions Judge is held by Sub-Judges.

The separation of the judiciary from the executive is complete in this State so that, like every other District, Kozhikode has also two categories of Magistrates, Executive and Judicial. The Executive Magistrates are the executive officers of the Revenue Department in whom is vested the responsibility for the maintenance of law and order. The District Collector by virtue of the office he holds retains some of the powers of a District Magistrate. He is an Additional District Magistrate. Similarly the Revenue Divisional Officers are ex-officio First Class Magistrates and they exercise their magisterial powers and functions within their respective revenue jurisdictions. The category of Judicial Magistrates consists of (1) the District Magistrate, (2) Sub Divisional Magistrates, (3) First Class Magistrates, (4) Sub Magistrates and (5) Honorary Magistrates.

Under the Criminal Procedure Code and various other statutes the functions of a Magistrate fall within three broad categories viz., (1) functions which are "Police" in their nature, as for instance, the handling of unlawful assemblies, (2) functions of an administrative character, as for instance,

the issue of licences for fire arms, etc., and (3) functions which are essentially judicial, as for instance, the trial of criminal cases. The allocation of powers between the two categories of Magistrates proceeds upon the principle that matters which are purely police or administrative in their nature should be dealt with by the Executive Magistrates while those which are judicial in nature are strictly within the purview of the Judicial Magistrates.[1] As Officers of the Revenue Department the Executive Magistrates are under the control of the Government through the Board of Revenue while the Judicial Magistrates are under the control of the High Court.

The District Magistrate is the principal magisterial officer of the District and as such he has general administrative superintendence and control over all Judicial Magistrates. He inspects once in every year all the Courts of the Sub Divisional and First Class Magistrates in the District and such of the Courts of Sub Magistrates as he considers necessary. His primary responsibility is to see that there is no congestion of work in any Court and that the Magistrates dispose of the work in their Courts properly and promptly. In addition to general supervisory functions the District Magistrate has also a specified area assigned to him, the cases arising from which he normally disposes of himself. He hears appeals from second class cases arising within that area or within any other area not assigned to any other First Class Magistrate. It is open to him to transfer to or from his file, particular cases, or class of cases, and appeals, but he is expected to dispose of cases of special difficulty and importance himself. The District and Sessions Judge inspects the Court of the District Magistrate annually as the nominee of the High Court. He may, if he thinks fit, also inspect the Court of any other Judicial Magistrate in the District as such nominee, but he does not have general powers of superintendence over Magistrates in his own right.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the several classes are detailed in Schedule III of the Code of Criminal Procedure (Act V of 1898). They may be invested with such additional powers by the State Government as are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code. The Sub Divisional and First

1. The powers of both categories of Magistrates have been defined in G.O.(P) 388|Home dated 5th May, 1959.

Class Magistrates can pass a sentence of imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law and of fine not exceeding Rs. 2,000. The Second Class Magistrates can pass a sentence of imprisonment for a term not exceeding 6 months, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law and of a fine not exceeding Rs. 500.

The Courts subordinate to the Sessions Court, Calicut as it stood on 31st March, 1958 are as follows.

	Courts		*Stations*
1.	The Assistant Sessions Court	(two benches)	Calicut
2.	Do.	(one bench)	Badagara
3.	The District Magistrate's Court (Judicial)		Calicut
4.	Additional First Class Magistrate's Court		Calicut
5.	The Sub Magistrate's Court	(one bench) (Second Class)	Calicut
6.	Do.	do.	Badagara
7.	Do.	do.	Tirur
8.	The Sub Magistrate's Court	(One bench) (Second Class)	Manjeri
9.	Do.	do.	Vayittiri
10.	Honorary Special Magistrate's Court		Badagara
11.	Do.		Calicut
12.	Do. (Railways)		Calicut

Statistics of Criminal Courts

There were 55 offences reported to the Sessions Court, Calicut during the year 1958-59. The number of persons under trial was 131. The cases of 107 persons were disposed of during the year. Of these 71 were acquitted or discharged and 36 were convicted.

The sentences passed by the courts of Sessions were as follows:—

Number of persons sentenced to rigorous imprisonment	32
Number of persons imprisoned and fined	4

The total number of offences reported during the year 1958-59 in the various Magistrate's Courts in the Kozhikode District was 12,272. The number of persons under trial was 15,872. The cases of 14,761 were disposed of during the year and 1,111 persons were awaiting trial at the end of the year.

Of the cases of 14,761 persons disposed of, 10,650 were convicted, 3,918 were acquitted or discharged and 193 were otherwise disposed of.

The sentences passed by the Magistrates' Courts were as follows:—

Number of persons sentenced to simple imprisonment only	133
Number of persons sentenced to rigorous imprisonment only	1,037
Number of persons imprisoned and fined	27
Number of persons fined only	9,151
Number of persons released on probation	302

Law Officers

The following are the other Law Officers of Government functioning in the Kozhikode District.

Designation.	*Number.*
District Government Pleader, Calicut	1
Public Prosecutor, Calicut	1
Additional Public Prosecutor, Calicut	1
Additional Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor, Badagara	1
Assistant Public Prosecutor Grade I—Calicut	1
Assistant Public Prosecutor Grade II—Calicut	1
Additional Public Prosecutor Grade II—Calicut	1
Assistant Public Prosecutor Grade II—Tirur	1

BAR ASSOCIATIONS

Bar Associations have been established in all those centres where major courts of law are located. They are intended to promote the study of scientific law, to promote and maintain the highest standard of professional conduct, to determine questions of professional conduct, to decide all questions of professional usage or courtesy among the members of the legal profession, to protect and promote the interests of lawyers, to investigate and study the existing laws and to discuss the various legislative measures and their implications.

There are eight Bar Associations in the District of which the most important is the one at Calicut. It was established

in 1925. Up to that year there was only a Library Association among the lawyers of the city, but on April 3, 1925 at a meeting of the members of the Law Library (Wilkinson Law Library, Calicut) the Bar Association was formally launched. In the year of its establishment it had 33 resident and 14 non-resident members on its rolls. The number steadily increased year after year and in 1960-61 it had a total membership of 122 lawyers. The assets of the Association were worth Rs. 3,500. It had an income of Rs. 2,440 and an expenditure of Rs. 2,310 in 1960-61.

The other Bar Associations are located at Quilandi, Payyoli, Badagara, Nadapuram, Manjeri, Tirur and Parappanangadi. The details of these Associations such as location, year of establishment, number of members etc. are given in the following table.

	Name of Association.	*Location.*	*Year of establishment.*	*No. of members in 1960-61*	*Income in 1960-61*	*Expenditure in 1960-61*
					Rs.	Rs.
1.	Bar Association, Quilandi	Premises of the Taluk Office, Quilandi	1890	10	100	100
2.	Bar Association, Payyoli	Munsiff's Court Building, Payyoli	1908	11	120	100
3.	Bar Association, Badagara	Premises of the Taluk Office, Badagara	1957	29	696	500
4.	Bar Association, Nadapuram	Munsiff's Court Building, Kallachi	1906	17	350	320
5.	Bar Association, Manjeri	Premises of the Taluk Office, Manjeri	1959	30	600	560
6.	Bar Association, Tirur	Premises of the Taluk Office, Tirur	1925	20	240	225
7.	Bar Association, Parappanangadi	Munsiff's Court Building, Parappanangadi	1905	11	132	100

APPENDIX—I

Names of Sub Divisions, Circles, Police Stations and Out-posts in the Kozhikode District

Circle	Police Station	Out-posts
I. KOZHIKODE SUB DIVISION:		
1. Kozhikode Town	1. Kozhikode Town	
	2. Kozhikode Kasba	
	3. Nadakkavu	
	4. Panniyankara	
2. Badagara	1. Badagara	
	2. Edacheri	Chombala
	3. Nadapuram	
	4. Kuttiyadi	
3. Quilandi	1. Quilandi	
	2. Payyoli	Kayanna
	3. Perambra	
	4. Balusseri	
4. Vayittiri	1. Vayittiri	
	2. Meppadi	Meenangadi
	3. Sultan's Battery	
	4. Kambalakkad	
II. MALAPPURAM SUB DIVISION:		
1. Chevayur	1. Chevayur	
	2. Kunnamangalam	
	3. Tamarasseri	
	4. Elattur	
	5. Meenchanda	
	6. Mukkam (Kodancheri)	
2. Manjeri	1. Manjeri	
	2. Malappuram	
	3. Ariyakkod	
	4. Kondotti	
	5. Feroke	
3. Tirur	1. Tirur	Tanur
	2. Kottakkal	
	3. Tirurangadi	Parappanangadi.
	4. Kattiparuthy	
	5. Kalpakancherri	
4. Wandur	1. Wandur	
	2. Nilambur	Edavanna
	3. Kalikavu	Karuvarakundu
	4. Pandikkad	Mudikod

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up of some of the important administrative departments not dealt with elsewhere may be considered here.

THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT

The Kozhikode District forms the Kozhikode Division of the Public Works Department. It falls under the Northern Circle of the Department which has its headquarters at Calicut. There are two regular Divisions of the Public Works Department in this District viz., General and Irrigation Division, and Roads and Buildings Division.

Irrigation Division. The Kozhikode Irrigation Division functions with jurisdiction over the entire Kozhikode District. The works attended to by this Division include all the major, minor and medium irrigation works and flood control, anti-sea erosion and inland navigation works including Block Development works. The Division is under the administrative control of an Executive Engineer who is immediately below the Superintending Engineer of the Irrigation Circle with headquarters at Calicut. There are five Sub-Divisions which are manned by Assistant Engineers who are immediately under the control of the Executive Engineer. The Sub-Divisions are:—

1. Irrigation Sub-Division with headquarters at Calicut.
2. Irrigation Sub-Division with headquarters at Parappanangadi.
3. Planning Sub-Division with headquarters at Badagara.
4. Planning Sub-Division with headquarters at Calicut and
5. Kanjirapuzha Ramanchadi Project Sub-Division with headquarters at Calicut.

Sub-Divisions are further divided into Sections which are under Section Officers or Junior Engineers. There are altogether 24 Sections in this Division.

Roads and Buildings Division. The Roads and Buildings Division, Kozhikode, which is coterminous with the Kozhikode District, is under the administrative control of an Executive Engineer. It attends to all the works (including maintenance, repairs, original works etc.) relating to buildings and roads which are under the Government. It is also in charge of the execution of works in the District Board roads in this District. The Executive Engineer in charge of this Division is immediately under the Superintending Engineer of the Buildings and Roads, Northern Circle, with headquarters at Calicut. Under the Executive Engineer there are 7 Assistant Engineers each of whom is in charge of a Sub-Division. The whole Division is divided into 27 sections each of which is under the charge of a Junior Engineer. Thus the technical staff in this Division consists of an Executive Engineer, 7 Assistant Engineers and 27 Junior Engineers.

The major bridge works are being executed by this Division. It also attends to the construction of major buildings. The following are the major buildings works of this Division.

Name of work.	Estimated Amount
	Rs.
1. Construction of a hospital at Badagara	21,47,500
2. Construction of additional accommodation to Kerala Polytechnic	1,82,000
3. Construction of Junior Technical School at Manjeri	4,26,500
4. Construction of a hospital at Manjeri	9,57,000
5. Construction of a Tourist Bangalow at Sultan's Battery	1,11,000

A total sum of about 2.5 crores of Rupees had been spent by this Division during the first two Plan periods for construction works. On an average a sum of 22 lakhs of Rupees is being spent every year for the maintenance and repair of works. The following figures show the financial outlay on the works undertaken since 1951.

Year.	Amount
	Rs.
1951-52	15,71,000
1952-53	17,51,200
1953-54	17,47,300
1954-55	19,47,000
1955-56	27,46,900
1956-57	14,43,700
1957-58	18,09,100
1958-59	36,51,300
1959-60	46,52,400

Special Buildings Division. There is a Special Buildings Division of the Public Works Department at Calicut which was formed on the 12th June, 1957 with jurisdiction over the three Revenue Districts of Palghat, Kozhikode and Cannanore. This Division was particularly created for the purpose of carrying out the Major building programmes formulated under the Five Year Plans. It functions under the administrative control of an Executive Engineer. The works under this Division within the Kozhikode District fall under the responsibility of two Assistant Engineers—Assistant Engineer, Medical Sub-Division Kozhikode and the Assistant Engineer, Hospital Sub-Division, Kozhikode both of whom are immediately below the Executive Engineer. There is also a third Assistant Engineer who is in charge of the Government Brennen College Sub-Division, Tellicherry.

The major buildings, the construction of which is attended to by this Division are the following:—1. the Medical College and attached buildings at Chevayur at an estimated cost of Rs. 122 lakhs, 2. the Men's Hostel, Women's Hostel and 'A' type Quarters attached to the Medical College, 3. the Medical College Hospital Block A and B type and D type quarters attached to it, 4. the permanent buildings for the Government College at Madapally at an estimated cost of Rs. 7.8 lakhs, 5. two Polytechnic Hostels under Ghosh Chandrakantha Scheme at Kerala Polytechnic and 6. the main block of Physical Education College, Calicut.

For the purpose of accounting the Radio Sub-Division at Calicut has been placed under the Special Buildings Division. The administrative control of the Radio Sub-Division is with

the Superintending Engineer, Calicut. The works generally attended to by this Sub-Division are the maintenance and repair of the radio maintained by Panchayats, Municipalities and N.E.S. Blocks, the audio visual equipments and the 16 MM projectors of the Community Blocks. It is also expected to provide the P. A. System for State sponsored functions and celebrations arranged by the Government.

Special Bridges Division. There is a Special Bridges Division at Calicut the jurisdiction of which extends to the whole of the Districts of Kozhikode and Palghat. Its main functions are the construction of major bridges within its jurisdiction and the construction and development of the West Coast Road. It is under the administrative control of an Executive Engineer who is assisted in his functions by five Assistant Engineers each of whom is in charge of a Sub-Division. The Sub-Divisions are:—1. Calicut Sub-Division No. I, 2. Calicut Sub-Division No. II, 3. Badagara Sub-Division, 4. Perinthalmanna Sub-Division and 5. Kuttipuram Sub-Division. Under these Sub-Divisions there are altogether 13 sections each of which is under a Junior Engineer. On an average 50 lakhs of Rupees are being spent by this Division annually for construction works.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The District Agricultural Officer, Kozhikode, with his headquarters at Calicut is in charge of the Agriculture Department in the District. He is immediately responsible to the Joint Director of Agriculture, Northern Range who has his headquarters at Calicut. As far as the agricultural extension activities in the District are concerned, the District Agricultural Officer is the final authority. He is invested with the duties of controlling supplies and services, and guiding and supervising the extension activities at the Taluk and Block levels. He is responsible for the organisation, and co-ordination of the activities of such field workers as Agricultural Assistants, Fieldmen, Demonstration Maistries, etc. in this Department. The supervision and inspection of the demonstration and trial plots also form part of his functions.

Below the District Agricultural Officer come the Agricultural Assistants and Agricultural Extension Officers. Their functions are to formulate and execute the agricultural programmes in consultation with the District Agricultural Officer

and the Block Development Officers for the Panchayats and N.E.S. Blocks in their respective areas. They organise Farmer's Societies, arrange Village Leaders' Training Camps, arrange meetings and group discussions, give instructions to the cultivators about scientific methods of cultivation, and supervise the work of the Fieldmen, Maistries, etc. under them. They are also expected to establish personal contacts with the farming public, instil in them a sense of confidence and make them follow the advice of the Department. There are 5 Agricultural Assistants for the agricultural development activities in the non-Block areas and 17 Agricultural Extension Officers for similar work in the Block areas. In addition to this there are two Agricultural Assistants for the State Seed Farms at Cheruvannur and Chockad. The offices of the Agricultural Assistants are located at Calicut, Quilandi, Kalpetta, Vengara and Tirur. The Agricultural Assistant, Calicut is in additional charge of the Parasite Breeding Station at Calicut. The Offices of the Agricultural Extension Officers are located at Wandur, Manjeri, Malappuram, Kondotti, Tirurangadi, Tanur, Kunnamangalam, Koduvalli, Sultan's Battery, Balusseri, Perambra, Todannur, Kunnummal, Tuneri, Melady, Badagara and Tirur. For the purpose of establishing constant and effective contacts with the public, these officers work in collaboration with the Taluk Officers of other Departments such as Land Revenue, Irrigation, Education, Industries, etc. The Agricultural Assistants are assisted by Agricultural Fieldmen and Demonstration Maistries.

The Agricultural Department maintains two Research Stations in the District viz., the Agricultural Research Station, Koothali, which functions under the control of a Superintendent who is administratively and technically responsible to the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Research, Mannuthy, and the Agricultural Research Station at Ambalavayal which functions under the control of the Superintendent, Wynad Colonisation Scheme, who is technically and administratively responsible to the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Research, Trichur.

The offices of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Northern Range and the Agricultural Assistant Engineer are also situated at Calicut.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

The District Veterinary Officer with his headquarters at Calicut is the head of the Animal Husbandry Department at the district level. The responsibility for the general supervision of veterinary institutions, implementation of departmental programmes, co-ordination of the activities of the subordinate officers, carrying out the various development programmes of the Five Year Plan in the N.E.S. Blocks, and the administrative control over the staff of the veterinary institutions, Key Village Centres, Artificial Insemination Centres and Poultry Centres is vested in the District Veterinary Officer.

Immediately below the District Veterinary Officer, there are the Veterinary Surgeons. There are ten of them in the District. They are in charge of the Veterinary Hospitals and Veterinary Dispensaries and supervise and direct the work in the Stockmen Stations and Poultry Extension Centres within their jurisdiction. In the N.E.S. Blocks the Extension Officers for Animal Husbandry and Stockmen are placed under the administrative control of the Block Development Officers concerned and under the technical control of the District Veterinary Officer. However, in certain N.E.S. Blocks where there are no separate Animal Husbandry Extension Officers, the nearest departmental Veterinary Surgeons having jurisdiction over the areas concerned are in additional charge to promote the Animal Husbandry activities. Besides the Veterinary Surgeons there are six Stockman Compounders each of whom is in charge of a Dispensary. Six of the N.E.S. Blocks in the District are having their own Veterinary Extension Officers and Stockman Compounders.

The following institutions are being managed by the Animal Husbandry Department in Kozhikode. 1. Veterinary Hospital at Calicut, Quilandi and Badagara, 2. Veterinary Dispensaries having Veterinary Surgeons at Kalpetta, Sultan's Battery, Kondotti, Tirur and Manjeri, 3. Veterinary Dispensaries having Stockman Compounders at Nilambur, Chattamangalam, Puduppadi, Perambra, Kuttipuram and Malappuram. 4. Key Village Centre at Calicut along with its six sub-centres. 5. Artificial Insemination Centre at Manjeri. 6. Regional Clinical Laboratory at Calicut. 7. Poultry Extension Centres at Calicut and Perambra. 8. Central Veterinary Store at Calicut and 9. District Poultry Farm at Chattamangalam.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

The Forest Department in the Kozhikode District functions in two Divisions under the control of two Divisional Forest Officers—one at Calicut and the other at Nilambur. Both of them are immediately under the control of the Conservator of Forests, Northern Range, with headquarters at Calicut.

The Divisional Forest Officer at Calicut is the head of the Department in the Calicut Forest Division. Under this Division there are five Forest Ranges each of which is under a Range Officer. They are Chedleth, Sultan's Battery, Kuttiyadi, Tamarasseri and Chaliyam. Besides there are three major Sales Depots located at Chaliyam, Kallayi and Kuppadi. The Ranges are divided into Sections which are placed under the control of the Foresters and the Sections are further divided into Beats each of which is under a Forest Guard. There is an Assistant Range Officer at Chedleth in order to help the Chedleth Forest Range Officer. There are altogether 21 Foresters and 30 Forest Guards working in this Division.

The Nilambur Forest Division is also under a Divisional Forest Officer. He is assisted by an Assistant Conservator of Forests. The Division consists of three regular Ranges—Nilambur South, Nilambur North and Karulai—each under the control of a Range Officer. In Karulai and Nilambur South Ranges there is one Assistant Ranger each in order to assist the Range Officers. In Karulai Range there is also a Deputy Ranger. In this Division there are three major Sales Depots—one at Aruvacode in Nilambur South Range, another at Nedungayam in Karulai Range and the third one at Nellikut in Nilambur North Range. Each of the Depots is under a Depot Officer or Forester. Under the three regular Ranges there are 24 Foresters in charge of Sections and 33 Forest Guards in charge of Beats. For checking the forest products on transit there are two checking stations in the Nilambur South Range—M.M. Tanah under a Forester and Vadapuram Checking Station under two Forest Guards.

In addition to the three regular Ranges there is a Special Range with one Ranger, three Foresters and six Forest Guards for the Survey work of Nilambur Kovilakam Forests proposed to be taken over by the Government.

The Office of the Forest Veterinary Officer whose jurisdiction extends to the whole of the State is also located at Calicut. He is assisted in his duties by an Assistant Forest Veterinary Officer whose Office also is at Calicut.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT

The Kozhikode Co-operative Circle, coterminous with the District of Kozhikode, came into existence on the 16th September, 1957. The Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies with his headquarters at Calicut is the head of the Department in the District. He attends to the general administration of the Department and the organisation of special types of Societies. He is generally responsible for the effective and proper working of all types of Co-operative Societies. The registration of Societies, registration of amendments to the bye-laws of the Societies, inspecting and conducting enquiries into the affairs of the Societies registered, and controlling and regulating the work of their executive staff also form part of his functions.

Below the Deputy Registrar there are two Assistant Registrars of Co-operative Societies to assist the Deputy Registrar in his functions. One of them—the Assistant Registrar (Planning)—is in charge of all the Plan Schemes of the Department subject to the supervision and control of the Deputy Registrar. The other one viz., the Assistant Registrar (Administration), is in charge of administration. He is the chief ministerial officer who assists the Deputy Registrar in the discharge of his duties relating to all sections except planning.

Under the Assistant Registrars come the Inspectors of Co-operative Societies each of whom is in charge of an administrative circle. The whole District has been divided into 16 circles. The Inspectors are authorised to take up inspection, to conduct statutory enquiry, to hear arbitration suits, to execute the awards passed by the Department and to exercise the powers of the Tahsildars under the Revenue Recovery Act. They are of two grades—First Grade and Second Grade. In addition to these 16 Inspectors there are three Liquidation Inspectors in this District who collect all realisable assets of the Societies under liquidation in their charge and disburse all liabilities according to the availability of funds and finally close their affairs.

In addition to the officers mentioned above, there is an Assistant Registrar for Development of Dairy with headquarters at Calicut and he is in charge of five Districts. There is also an Inspector in charge of the Farming Societies with his headquarters at Calicut. His duty is the supervision and organisation of farming Societies and his jurisdiction extends to the whole of the Kozhikode and Cannanore Districts.

As a result of the separation of Audit and Administration in 1958, there is a separate Deputy Registrar for Audit with his headquarters at Calicut and having jurisdiction over the Districts of Cannanore, Kozhikode, Palghat and Trichur. The auditors in the Kozhikode District are put under the control of this Officer. The Auditors undertake interim and final audit of all societies falling in their respective jurisdictions subject to control by the Deputy Registrar. They are also of two categories—First Grade and Second Grade.

INDUSTRIES DEPARTMENT

The District Industries Officer with his headquarters at Calicut is the head of the Industries Department in the District. He is directly responsible to the Regional Deputy Director of Industries who has also his headquarters at Calicut. The District Industries Officer is in charge of all the industrial activities of the District. He acts as the Registrar for Industrial Co-operative Societies with powers for registering such Societies. The Industrial Schools also come under his control. He is also vested with powers for the valuation of machinery and buildings offered as securities by applicants for industrial loans.

The District Industries Officer is assisted by the Handloom Development Officer with headquarters at Calicut, the Superintendent of Sericulture Farm at Ambalavayal, Extension Officers for Industries in the N.E.S. Blocks, Senior and Junior Inspectors for Industrial Co-operatives, one Small Scale Industries Organiser, one Inspector of Cottage Industries, one Technical Supervisor, one Demonstrator and one Instructor for the Tailoring and Garment-making Centre at Badagara.

The Handloom Development Officer supervises all the activities connected with the Handloom Industry in the District. His main functions are to take steps for the formation

of Handloom Co-operatives, inspect such Societies and give necessary guidance for their successful working. He is assisted by Handloom Inspectors.

The Farm Superintendent in the Sericulture Farm at Ambalavayal is in charge of the Sericulture Industry in Wynad Taluk. His main activities are to take necessary steps for the development and extension of mulbery cultivation and silk worm rearing among the local inhabitants by giving suitable guidance.

There are eleven Extension Officers for Industries in the various N.E.S. Blocks in the District and they are in charge of the industrial activities as the Block level. Their main functions are to explore the possibilities of developing suitable industries in the Blocks, to persuade interested parties to start new industries, to give technical advice to the small industrialists, and above all, to give them financial aid by way of loans and grants from the Block Budget. The Extension Officers are placed under the administrative control of the Block Development Officers and under the technical control of the District Industries Officer.

The Senior and Junior Inspectors for Industrial Co-operatives are attached to the headquarters office and their main functions are the inspection of industrial co-operative societies and giving guidance for their proper working. The Small Scale Industries, development of industries undertaken by the private in matters connected with the development of Small Scale Industries, development of industries undertaken by the private small scale industrialists, and the implementation of the Plan Schemes under Small Scale Industries. The Inspector of Cottage Industries undertakes the activities connected with the development of handicrafts in the District and attends to the work of Papier-mache Training Centre. The Technical Supervisor attends to works of a technical nature such as valuation of machinery, and investigation into applications for hire purchase of machinery and permits for controlled commodities. The Demonstrator attends to the production side in the combined Carpentry and Blacksmithy workshop.

The Industries Department in Kozhikode has the following institutions under its control. 1. Carpentry and Blacksmithy Workshop, Calicut. 2. Fruit preservation unit, Ambalavayal.

3. Wood Workingshop, Calicut. 4. Carpentry workshop, Nilambur. 5. Smithy workshop, Tuneri. 6. Tailoring and Garment-making Centre, Badagara. 7. Papier-mache Training Centre, Calicut. 8. Sericultural Farm, Ambalavayal. 9. Handicrafts Sales Depot, Calicut.

In addition there are some more institutions in the District which are directly run by the Industries Department but do not come under the control of the District Industries Officer. They are:— 1. Kerala Soap Institute, Calicut. 2. Government Oil Factory, Calicut. 3. Government Hydrogenation Factory, Calicut. 4. Government Coir School, Beypore. 5. Industrial School, Calicut and 6. Malabar Spinning and Weaving Mills, Kallai.

LOCAL FUND AUDIT DEPARTMENT

The function of the Local Fund Accounts (Audits) Department in the District is the audit of all the local fund institutions such as the Malabar District Board, Municipalities, Panchayats, Malabar Market Committee, Malabar Local Library Authority and several other grant-in-aid institutions within the statutory limit. The District Inspector of Local Fund Accounts with headquarters at Calicut is the head of the Department at the district level. He is directly responsible to the Assistant Examiner of Local Fund Audit, North Zone, with his headquarters at Calicut. It is his duty to see to the proper conduct of the audit in the local fund and other grant-in-aid institutions within the time limit prescribed by the Government. Audit is done each financial year or calendar year as instructed by the Government. Besides communicating the irregularities in maintaining accounts and in financial administration through audit report, the District Inspector has also to give his views on financial or accounting matters when sought for by the Local Bodies.

STATISTICS DEPARTMENT

The District Statistical Officer is the head of the Statistics Department at the district level. He is not only responsible for the systematic collection of all kinds of statistical data but also for the supervision of the Sample Surveys conducted by the Department in the District. He watches the weekly progress of the surveys and gives the necessary directions to the field staff.

Below the District Statistical Officer come the Inspectors, Investigators and Compilers. At present there are seven Inspectors viz., four Inspectors for Land Utilisation Survey, one for National Sample Survey, one for Plantation and Industries and one for Special Intensive Studies. The functions of the Inspector of Land Utilisation Survey are the supervision over the Fixed Point Survey, Coconut and Arecanut Survey, Crop Cutting Survey, Cultivable Waste Land Survey and collection of prices. The National Sample Survey work in the State Samples of Kozhikode Circle is done by the Inspector of National Sample Survey at Calicut. The duty of the Inspector of Plantation and Industries is to ensure that the returns from specific establishments are obtained without fail and are sent to the Director of Statistics periodically. The Inspector for Special Intensive Studies supervises the work connected with the Special Intensive Studies and scrutinises the schedules carefully.

Under the Inspectors come the Statistical Investigators each of whom is allotted a particular scheme of survey in selected villages. Below the Investigators come the Compilers who attend to the systematic processing of data from sample surveys and other sources for analysis and dissemination. They visit all the other offices in the District in connection with the collection of data regarding the progress of the schemes under the Five Year Plan.

PUBLIC RELATIONS DEPARTMENT

The District Information Officer, Kozhikode is the head of the Department of Public Relations at the district level. He issues press releases on governmental activities in the District and acts as the press Liaison Officer of the Government. He gathers information on developmental activities in the Blocks and other Departments and focuses public attention on these activities by issuing feature articles to the press as well as to the Departmental journal viz., the *Kerala Sandesh*. He occasionally visits information centres in the N.E.S. Blocks and guides in the proper functioning of these centres. Attached to the District Information Office there is a District Information Centre which gives useful information to those who seek it. Tourists coming from abroad will find it useful to visit the District Information Office and get guidance from the District Information Officer as to the places of interest

worth visiting in the District. Information regarding local reactions to the policies and activities of the Government is also transmitted from the District Information Office to the head office. The other functions of the District Information Officer include the effective distribution of the publicity materials relating to Five Year Plans, making arrangements for press conferences or interviews to the journalists and state guests etc.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF—GOVERNMENT

EARLY HISTORY

Local self-governing institutions have formed an integral part of community life and administration in Kerala from very ancient times. As in other parts of the State the *kuttams* of the *Tara* and such other local assemblies functioned vigorously in the Kozhikode District also. They helped the villagers to pursue their even tenor of life even in the midst of political convulsions and disturbances. They also checked the despotism of rulers and preserved the rights and privileges of the people at large. With the advent of British power the local assemblies lost their vitality and importance. Having been relegated to the background they languished and finally disappeared. But in course of time the Government realised the basic value of these institutions and evolved schemes for the association of the people with the administration of local affairs.

The history of Local Self-Government in the Kozhikode District is essentially the history of local self-government legislation in Madras State. The most important pieces of local self government legislation are the Madras Town Improvement Act 1865, the Madras Local Funds Act 1871, the Madras Local Boards Act 1884, the Madras Local Boards Act 1920, the Madras District Municipalities Act 1920 and the Madras Village Panchayats Act 1950.

Three important legislative measures have been passed since the formation of Kerala State. They are the Kerala Panchayats Act (1960), the Kerala Municipalities Act (1960) and the Calicut City Municipal Act (1961). Of these the Kerala Municipalities Act 1960 has been notified to have come into force with effect from October 1, 1961. The Kerala Panchayats Act (1960) is being progressively enforced with effect from June 20, 1960. The Calicut City Municipal Act has not yet come into force.

MUNICIPALITIES

There are two Municipalities in this District viz., Calicut and Badagara.

CALICUT MUNICIPALITY

Early History. The Calicut Municipality was set up on July 3, 1866 under the Madras Town Improvements Act of 1865 and it is the earliest of the Municipalities in the State. It has had a chequered career. The *Malabar District Gazetteer* gives the following information about its early history. In 1882 the rate payers of Calicut were allowed for the first time to elect one half of the Councillors and in 1886-87 the full complement of elected Councillors viz., 18 out of 24 was secured[1]. The Council was also given the privilege of electing its Chairman. However, there was the standing complaint that the administration of the Municipality was unsatisfactory and therefore in 1890 the dual privilege of having the full complement of elected Councillors and an elected Chairman was withdrawn. A paid Chairman held office for two years and later the Revenue Divisional Officer was *ex-officio* Chairman till 1901. The privilege of electing one half of the Councillors was restored in 1896-97, and that of electing the Chairman in 1901. Subsequently the Council was allowed to elect three-fourth of its members, the remaining one-fourth being appointed by the Government. In course of time the official members of the Council were withdrawn, and with the coming into force of the District Municipalities Act of 1920 the nomination of Government officials was completely stopped and the strength of the Council raised from 24 to 32, all the members being non-officials. The term of the Councillors was to be 3 years. The Council continued to elect its own Chairman and Vice-Chairman. Under Act X of 1930 which amended the District Municipalities Act of 1920 the nomination by Government of one-fourth of the total strength of the Council ceased altogether and the Council came to be composed of purely elected members. In the early thirties the Calicut Municipality had an income exceeding 2½ lakhs of rupees derived mainly from taxes. The incidence of taxation in 1929-30 was Rs. 2-6-3. In those days

1. Under the Town Improvements Act 1871 not more than three-fourth of the Councillors of a Municipality might be elected by the tax-payers.

the Municipality administered an area of about 13 sq. miles with a population of nearly a lakh and maintained 70 miles of road.

Organisation and Structure

The present Calicut Municipality has been constituted under the provisions of the Madras District Municipalities Act of 1920* but with effect from October 1, 1961 the provisions of the Kerala Municipalities Act 1960 apply to the Municipality also. The area of the Municipality in 1959-60 was 11.35 sq. miles. The population of the city was 158,724 according to the Census of 1951 and 192,435 according to the provisional population figures of 1961. The municipal area is divided into 32 wards for purposes of election. The strength of the Municipal Council is 36. Three seats are reserved for women and one for Scheduled Castes. The seats for women are reserved in the electoral Ward Numbers XVI, XX and XI and that for the Scheduled Castes in the electoral Ward Number V. The term of the Councillors is three years.

The Council elects the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman from among its own members. The Chairman convenes meetings of the Council. All correspondence with Government and Heads of Departments is carried on by him. The Council ordinarily meets once a month, and the quorum required for a meeting is one-third of the total strength of the Council.

The Commissioner is the Chief Executive Authority of the Municipality. He is a full-time officer appointed by the Government to perform all the duties and exercise all the powers conferred on him. He has also been vested with certain special powers to meet emergencies. He is assisted by a Personal Assistant, a Municipal Health Officer, a Town Planning Officer and a Municipal Engineer. It may be noted in this connection that the Calicut Municipality has the biggest establishment among the Municipalities of the State. The details of the total

*. With the enforcement of the provisions of the Calicut City Municipal Act 1961 the Calicut Municipality will become a Corporation. An outline of the Act is given in Appendix I. During the interval between October 1961 and the date on which the Calicut City Municipal Act 1961 comes into force the provisions of the Kerala Municipalities Act 1960 will apply to Calicut Municipality only as an interim measure. An outline of this Act is given in Appendix II.

number of Municipal employees in 1960 are furnished below:—

	Regular		*Non-regular*	
	Males	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*
Municipal Service (Administration)	117	13	16	..
Municipal Health Service	408	191	80	2
Municipal Town Planning	12	..	3	..
Engineering and Water Supply	72	..	28	..
Total	609	204	127	2

For purposes of administration the Municipal Council has constituted three Statutory Committees and five Standing Committees. The Statutory Committees are the Contract Committee, Appointment Committee and Town Planning Committee. The Contract Committee has three members and is competent to sanction contracts not exceeding Rs. 1,000 in value in each case. Any contract above the value of Rs. 1,000 requires the sanction of the Council. The Appointment Committee which consists of three members sanctions all appointments. The Town Planning Committee consists of 8 members of whom two are not members of the Council. It exercises all the powers under Rule 22 of the Madras Town Planning Rules (1933). The quorum for a meeting of the first two Committees is two members while that for a meeting of the third Committee is three members. The Chairman of the Municipal Council is also the Chairman of all the Committees. It may be noted that the presence of the Commissioner is absolutely necessary at the meetings of the Statutory Committees for contract and appointment.

The Standing Committees of the Council are the (1) Finance Committee, (2) Works Committee, (3) Garden Committee, (4) Health and Sanitation Committee and (5) Encroachment Committee. The members of the Standing Committees elect their Chairmen from among themselves. The Chairman of the Municipal Council is a member of the Standing Committee by election. The Commissioner attends the meetings of the Standing Committees, if requested to do so. The Finance Committee consists of 12 members. It has powers to sanction the write-off of taxes and fees up to Rs. 2 per item, to dispose off appeals relating to profession tax and property tax, and to sanction expenditure of Rs. 200 and refund of Rs. 10 in each case.

The Works Committee has 11 members and can sanction expenditure not exceeding Rs. 100 in each case. The Health and Sanitation Committee consists of 12 members of whom two are non-Councillors. It has power to sanction expenditure up to Rs. 50 in each case. The Encroachment Committee consisting of 11 members deals with matters pertaining to the encroachment of municipal lands. The Garden Committee which has 8 members attends to the maintenance of gardens. In addition to the Standing Committees, Ad-hoc Committees are constituted by the Council as and when required.

Sources of Revenue.

The main sources of revenue of this Municipality are (1) income from Municipal rates and taxes, (2) income from licence fees, (3) income from remunerative enterprises and (4) Government grants.

The most important taxes are (1) Property tax (Buildings tax and Land tax), (2) Profession tax, (3) Vehicle and Animal Tax and (4) Entertainment tax. The details of the taxes and licence fees for 1959-60 are given below.

Property tax

Buildings

General	9 1/2% per annum of the annual rental value	
Scavenging	3%	do.
Lighting	3 3/4%	do.
Water and Drainage	5%	do.

Lands: Same as for buildings except for vacant lands and lands used for agricultural purposes for which the rates are as follows:

Vacant lands:

General	1/2% of the capital value per half year	
Water & drainage	1/2%	do.
Scavenging	1/8%	do.
Lighting	1/8%	do.

Lands used exclusively for agricultural purposes:—25 nP. per Rupee of land revenue per half year.

Profession Tax: Profession tax was levied at the maximum rates allowed by Government[1]. The maximum half yearly rate of Profession tax levied was Rs. 125 on half yearly incomes exceeding Rs. 15,000 and the minimum Rs. 2 on incomes ranging

1. Vide G.O. No. 840 dated April 12, 1950.

between Rs. 600 and 1,000. Over and above this, surcharge at 5% of the profession tax on persons and companies with an half yearly income of Rs. 1,500 and above was being levied with effect from October 1, 1957 as required under the Kerala Surcharge on Taxes Act, 1957.

Vehicle and Animal Tax: Vehicle and animal tax was levied at the maximum rates prescribed in Schedule IV to the Madras District Municipalities Act 1920, as amended, except on carts and animals coming from outside municipal limits, which were charged at 75% of the rates collected for those plying within municipal limits, and for carts fitted with pneumatic tyres, taxes were charged at half the rates of tax levied on carts fitted with iron tyred wheels. Rickshaws, Jutkas and horses, kept are used within the municipality were exempt from payment of municipal tax.

Entertainment tax: The entertainment tax was assessed and collected for the Municipality by the Agricultural Income Tax and Sales Tax Department. 90% of the proceeds were paid to the Municipality and 10% appropriated by the Department as collection charges. The income realised under this item was Rs. 1,61,315 in 1959-60 against Rs. 1,67,715 in 1958-59.

Licence Fees: The Municipal Health Officer enforced the provisions of the Madras District Municipalities Act 1920, relating to licensing of tea and coffee shops and other catering establishments, within the Municipality and within 3 miles of the limits of this Municipality.

A table showing the total demand under some of the main sources of revenue of the Council for the year 1959-60 as well as for those of the two preceding years is given below.

Nature of Tax	1957-58 Rs.	1958-59 Rs.	1959-60 Rs.
1. Tax on buildings	8,74,649	9,15,281	11,45,340
2. Tax on lands	69,240	67,837	80,726
3. Profession tax	89,447	98,132	89,240
4. Surcharge on profession tax	1,900	4,121	3,731
5. Remunerative enterprises	1,13,125	1,55,255	1,89,654
6. Vehicle, Cart and animal tax	24,573	27,379	24,289
7. Licence fees	1,37,663	1,38,804	1,35,587
8. Water charges	..	51,358	56,725
Total	13,10,497	14,58,167	17,25,292

It may be noted that the revenue demand of the Municipality has been increasing steadily year after year. The total increase in demand during 1959-60 over that of the previous was Rs. 2,62,893, the main bulk of the increase being under tax on buildings and lands.

Incidence of Taxation: The incidence of taxation in 1959-60 and during the previous two years is as given below.

Year	*Incidence per head of population of all taxes*	*Incidence of aggregate tax per property*	*Incidence of profession tax per assessee*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1957-58	6.36	36.65	14.16
1958-59	7.01	43.38	14.82
1959-60	8.46	47.20	13.78

The total number of buildings and lands assessed to property tax in 1959-60 were 20,785 and 5,189 respectively and the average tax per item of property under these two heads was Rs. 55.10 and Rs. 15.55 respectively.

Remunerative Enterprises.

In addition to income from taxes and license fees the Calicut Municipality gets some revenue from remunerative enterprises owned by it. It owns a municipal town bus service, 13 daily markets, 4 cart stands, 1 bus stand, 1 lorry stand, 7 landing places, 1 ferry, 4 cattle pounds and 32 wooden bunks. Detailed information on each of the items is given below.

The Calicut Municipality is the only one of its kind in the whole of Kerala and Madras States to run a town bus service of its own. It has three buses which ply on three different routes. The first bus of this Municipality was put on the road on November 6, 1959. The Council has plans to municipalise all the town bus services in this area. A work shop also was constructed in the premises of the Municipal Office at a cost of Rs. 9,300. The Municipal Town bus service is treated as State Transport service under the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act. The gross income from the City Bus Service upto March 31, 1960 was Rs. 15,999.

The Council maintains 13 daily markets of which the most important are the Central Market and the Kottaparamba Vegetable Market. The former is situated in the heart of the city. The dry fish stalls, shop rooms, miscellaneous stalls, vegetable stalls and temporary stalls for the sale of miscellaneous articles here are run directly by the Municipality. All others are leased out. The vegetable market at Kottaparamba which was opened on May 8, 1960 consists of 96 retail shops, 22 wholesale shops, a canteen and a beautiful three-storeyed building in front. It is expected to yield a recurring income of Rs. 75,000 per annum to the Municipal Council. 7 daily and 1 weekly private markets are licensed by the Municipality. In 1959-60 the total income realised on account of license fees from these markets was Rs. 483.

The Council maintains 5 cart stands, 1 bus stand and 1 lorry stand. It also maintains a slaugter house for sheep, goat etc., and another for bulls, buffaloes, etc. A pen is attached to these slaughter houses. In addition 7 landing places and a ferry are also maintained by the Municipality.

A statement showing the income realised from markets, cart stands, bus and lorry stands, slaughter houses and landing places and ferry during the period 1957-60 is given below.

Year	*Markets*	*Cart stands*	*Bus stands & Lorry stands*	*Slaughter houses*	*Landing places and Ferry*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1957-58	76,500	4,148	8,880	3,167	4,499
1958-59	90,215	4,460	13,635	3,566	5,442
1959-60	85,676	3,278	22,822	5,710	3,715

Government Grants: Government grants also form a source of income for the Municipality. The grants are given for specific purposes such as maintenance of Maternity Centres, anti-malarial activities, payment of special Dearness Allowance to the Municipal staff, execution of non-remunerative schemes, maintenance of the Infectious Diseases Hospital, purchase of hand carts for scavengers etc. Besides the Municipality is also getting Rs. 4,050 per year from the Government as compensation for loss of Municipal revenue sustained by the Council consequent on the cancellation of its powers to license Motor Vehicles and lorries. A statement of the income and expenditure of the Calicut Municipality is given in Appendix III.

Activities and Achievements of the Municipality

The major activities and achievements of the Municipality may be considered under the following heads (1) Communication, (2) Lighting, (3) Public Health and Sanitation, (4) Water Supply and drainage, (5) Town planning and (6) Slum clearance.

Communication.

The Municipality maintains 71 miles 1 furlong and 41 yards of roads. The details are given below.

	Name of Roads	*Length at the beginning of the year*			*Additions or substitutions during the year*			*Length at the end of the year*		
		M.	F.	Yds	M.	F.	Yds.	M.	F.	Yds.
(a)	Cement concrete	1	1	186	..	..	..	1	1	186
(b)	Asphaltic concrete	9	1	4	+0	6	0	10	5	4
					*+0	6	0			
(c)	Water bound Macadam	23	7	190	—0	6	0	22	3	190
					—0	6	0			
(d)	Laterite ballast and Gravelled Roads	10	4	38	1	2	0	11	6	38
(e)	Earthern roads including lanes	26	2	63	—1	2	0	25	0	63
	Total	71	1	41	..	..	..	71	1	41

* Surface dressed with precoated chips.

One Travellers' Bungalow and one Satram are maintained by the Municipality. The total income from the T.B. in 1959-60 was Rs. 2,704 and from Satram Rs. 1,104. As the present T.B. with four rooms is found to be very inadequate to meet the needs of the visitors to Calicut, arrangements are being made to put up an additional block.

There were 3,198 electric lights of 40 watts, 112 lights of 60 watts, 93 lights of 100 watts, 243 suspension lights and 6 inter-span lights in the city in 1950-60. There were also 91 Mercury Vapour lights and 15 flourescent tube lights in important places. The Council maintains 307 kerosene oil lights where electric mains are not laid. Electricity is being supplied by the West Coast Electricity Supply Corporation.

Public Health.

The Calicut Municipality maintains 7 medical institutions. Of these 4 are Allopathic, two Ayurvedic and one for the treatment of infectious diseases. The number of patients treated at each of the Municipal dispensaries, cost of medicine purchased and the cost per patient during 1958-60 are given below.

	Name of dispensary	*No. of patients*	*Cost of medicines including advance*	*Cost per patient*			
				1958-59		*1959-60*	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.
1.	Prince of Wales Dispensary, Kallayi	32,574	11,798	0	07	0	36
2.	Dr. Nedungadi Municipal Dispensary, Mankavu	39,902	7,050	0	29	0	21
3.	Koyappathodi Municipal Dispensary, Kuttichira	30,968	5,670	0	18	0	18
4.	Vellayil Dispensary	29,555	9,847	0	14	0	33
5.	Rao Bahadur A. P. Chirukandan Dispensary, Chalapuram	19,233	3,856	0	19	0	20
6.	The Municipal Dispensary, West Hill	13,147	4,179	0	08	0	32
7.	Infectious Diseases Hospital, Vellayil	214	1,563	..		7	30

The total number of patients treated at the Municipal dispensaries during the year 1959-60 was 158,592 of which 123,792 were residing in the city and 34,800 were from outside.

The Municipality also runs a T.B. Clinic which is extremely popular. This is the only one of its kind run by a Municipality in Kerala State. There is an average daily attendance of 103 patients most of whom are screened and given clinical treatment. The entire expenditure on the maintenance of the T.B. Clinic is met by the Municipality from the proceeds of the Health, Education and Industrial Exhibition conducted by it every year.

The Municipality pays Rs. 2,400 per annum to the Chevayur Leper Home, Rs. 150 to the Ramakrishna Asram, Rs. 100 to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals and Rs. 150 to the Bharat Sevak Samaj.

The Public Health Administration of the Municipality is in the charge of a Municipal Health Officer. The town is divided into 12 Sanitary Divisions each of which is in the charge of a Health Inspector. The Public Health staff consists of 14 Health Inspectors of whom 12 are in charge of divisions, one in charge of lorries, and the other for conducting prosecutions. Propaganda on health by lectures, exhibitions, cinema shows, and distribution of pamphlets and leaflets is a regular activity of the Municipal Health Staff.

Vaccination and registration of vital statistics are carried out by the Municipality. The Municipal area is divided into 9 divisions for the purpose of vaccination and birth and death registration, each division being in the charge of a Health Assistant. It may be noted that the Health Assistants do only birth and death registration and vaccination work, and are not employed on any other public health work. The total number of cases of primary and re-vaccination conducted during the year 1959-60 was 4,222 and 55,187 as against 4,158 and 45,325 respectively in the previous year. The number of successful cases of vaccination per thousand of the population in 1959-60 was 55.45 as against 54.21 in the previous year.

The Municipality also carries on anti-malarial and anti-filarial work. The city is divided into three units North, Central and South for the purpose of anti-malarial and anti- filarial work. Each unit is in the charge of one Field Assistant with the required number of sanitary maistries, Mazdoors and implements. Each unit area is divided into 6 day blocks and each day block is further sub-divided into smaller pump blocks. One pump man and one spade man are allotted to each pump block.

There are 6 Maternity and Child Health Centres in this Municipality of which four are Maternity Homes where lying-in convenience is provided. The Vellayil Centre has 1 bed and the Puthiambalam and West Hill Centres 6 each. The staff for the centres consists of one Medical Officer, one Health Visitor, 13 Maternity Assistants and 16 Ayahs. 2,796 deliveries were conducted by the Municipal Maternity Assistants in 1960 as against 3,126 in 1959. Of these 2,769 cases 62 were still births. The total expenditure incurred by the Municipality on the maintenance of these Centres in 1959-60 was Rs. 41,897. No grant was being received by the Municipality towards the

expenses connected with the maintenance of Maternity and Child Health Centres till 1960. However, from April 1, 1960 Government is giving a grant of Rs. 1,000 per centre to the Municipality for their maintenance.

The Municipality maintains 35 public latrines. The rubbish and night soil are collected from the city and taken to the trenching ground situated about 5 miles away and converted into compost manure. The total quantity of compost manure manufactured in 1959-60 was 195,137 cubic feet. The total quantity sold was 92,650 cubic feet and an income of Rs. 3,322 was realised therefrom. The number of private latrines in the Municipality is 13,806. Night soil is removed in tank lorries. The income and expenditure under private scavenging in the Municipality in 1959 and 1960 amounted to Rs. 1,66,263 and Rs. 2,01,146 respectively.

There are 30 burial and cremation grounds in the municipal area of which 15 are Hindu, 13 Muslim and 2 Christian. All of them are kept in good sanitary condition.

A comprehensive drainage scheme does not exist in this Municipality and an investigation for the same has been sanctioned by the Government. Protected water supply on a limited scale is available. Private house connections are given wherever possible. The total number of street taps in 1959-60 was 304 and the number of house service connections 693. The original water supply scheme was designed to supply about 15 lakhs gallons of water daily, but actually the total yield is now found to be only about 5 lakhs gallons which is insufficient to meet the needs of the city. The city requires about 50 lakhs gallons of water daily at the rate of 25 gallons per head. A scheme for the supply of 75 lakhs gallons of water per day is being investigated by the Public Health Engineering Department.

There is a Town Planning section in the Municipality under the charge of a Town Planning Officer. There are 6 detailed town planning schemes on hand at various stages of preparation and execution. The existing area of the town is 11.35 sq.miles. The statistics collected from the town area for the Master Plan for Calicut revealed that certain parts of the city are overcrowded and thickly built up. The question of extending the limits of the city to the East is under consideration. The additional area suggested covers an area of 20.7 sq. miles to include 14 villages. The proposals have not yet been finalised.

The Municipality has also its Slum Clearance Scheme. The coastal area of the town is low lying and is inhabited by poor people. Their dwellings are kept in a most insanitary condition. The Council has taken up a slum clearance scheme at Vellayil to cover an area of 20 acres of land. The Government of India have sanctioned an allotment of Rs. 5.70 lakhs for slum clearance and the work is in progress.

Among the other activities of the Municipality may be mentioned the annual Exhibition and Foot-ball Tournament conducted under its auspices. The Exhibition is conducted every year in the month of April for raising funds to combat T.B., Cancer etc. within the Municipality. The proceeds from the Foot-ball Tournament are to be utilised for the construction of a Stadium at Calicut.

BADAGARA MUNICIPALITY

The Badagara Municipality was constituted on October 1, 1958 under the provisions of the Madras District Municipalities Act 1920. The area of the Municipality is 8.23 sq. miles and its population according to the 1951 Census is 37,244 (43,900 provisional population figure, 1961 Census). The Municipal area has been divided into 21 wards for purposes of election. Ward No. 21 is reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and Ward Numbers 5 and 14 for women.[1] The elections to the Municipal Council have not yet taken place and hence the administration of the Municipality since its inception is being carried on by a Special Officer appointed by the Government.

Financial Resources

As in the case of the Calicut Municipality the revenue of the Badagara Municipality is also derived from taxes, licence fees, income from remunerative enterprises, and Government grants. The main taxes levied are property tax, vehicle tax, profession tax and entertainment tax. Property tax is being levied at the rate of 8 per cent of the annual value. The other taxes are being levied at the maximum rates prescribed by the Government. The details of the income

1. This arrangement has been effected under the provisions of the Kerala Municipalities Act 1960, which now governs the working of this Municipality.

received by the Municipality from these taxes during the years 1959-60 and 1960-61 are given below.

Year	Property tax	Vehicle tax	Profession tax	Entertainment tax
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	2,087.23	4,179.06	6,386.10	11,672.52
1960-61	65,484.56	1,246.30	11,187.00	5,888.03

The Municipality is not running any markets of its own. There are two daily and one weekly private markets situated in the Municipal area. Licenses are issued to parties for running these markets. But the Municipality is maintaining a cart stand, a bus stand, and a slaughter house. The income derived from these remunerative enterprises in 1959-60 and 1960-61 is given below.

	Year	
	1959-60	1960-61
Markets	825.45	802.56
Slaughter house and meat stalls	507.78	925.06
Bus stand and landing places	2,530.53	2,225.00
Cart stand	558.14	467.06
License fee	8,446.79	12,106.44
Other fees	2,028.50	1,166.00

An important source of revenue for the Municipality is the license fees realised from dangerous and offensive trades. In 1959-60 the income under this head was Rs. 8.446.79 and in 1960-61 Rs. 1,21,065.44.

In addition the Municipality gets grants from Government for such specific purposes as payment of Dearness Allowance to the Municipal staff, anti-filaria work, and maintenance of Maternity and Child Welfare centres.

A detailed statement of the income and expenditure of the Municipality for the years 1959-60 and 1960-61 is given in Appendix IV at the end of this Chapter.

Activities and Achievements.

The activities and achievements of the Badagara Municipality may be considered under the following heads.

Communications. The Municipality is maintaining 8 miles and 2 furlongs of metalled roads and 14 miles and 1 furlong of unmetalled roads and lanes. It is also maintaining 10 foot bridges. No ferry or rest house is maintained by it.

Lighting. In 1960-61 the Municipality was maintaining 457 electric lights and 6 Mercury Vapour lights.

Radio sets. During the same period four sets of radio were being maintained by the Municipality.

Public Health. The Badagara Municipality is not maintaining any medical institution of its own. But it is maintaining two Maternity and Child Welfare centres with one Maternity Assistant and one Ayah attached to each centre. In 1960-61, 262 cases were attended to by the Maternity Assistants.

There are one Health Inspector and one Health Assistant cum Birth and Death Registrar employed by this Municipality. The Health Assistant attends to the vaccination work and registration of births and deaths in the Municipal area. The number of primary vaccinations and re-vaccinations conducted in 1960-61 were 1,097 and 9,215 respectively.

There are 16 sweepers and 8 scavengers employed by this Municipality to attend to sanitation and conservancy work. The work of the sweepers and scavengers is being supervised by two Maistries. 11 public latrines of 57 seats are maintained by the Municipality. They are being regularly and daily cleaned by the conservancy staff. The rubbish and night soil collected are transported to the trenching ground at Putiappu for the manufacture of compost. The ripe compost is sold at the rate of Rs. 2 per ton. The quantity of compost prepared in 1960-61 was 4,300 cubic feet and the amount realised from the sale of compost was Rs. 205.

The Municipality is also carrying on anti-filarial work by employing a Field Assistant and 4 Spray Mazdoors. Their work is supervised by the Health Inspector. One third of the total expenditure on this account is being met from Government grant.

Water Supply and Drainage. There is no protected water supply scheme for Badagara town. The Municipality is maintaining 17 public wells, and one tank to provide drinking water to the public. The main drinking water sources are private wells. A major water supply scheme has been sanctioned for this Municipality by the Government under the Third Five Year Plan.

There is no special drainage system for Badagara town. However, there are several storm water channels in the area. There is a proposal to construct an open drain from Kottaparamba soak pit to the canal situated on the western side of the Railway line to dispose off the sullage water and it is proposed to complete the work in three stages. There is also a proposal to construct a drain on the eastern side of the Cannanore—Calicut Trunk Road at Kottaparamba and to connect the said drain to the soak pit situated nearby to dispose off the sullage water from the town.

The Municipality is not maintaining any cremation or burial ground. There is one common Hindu burial and cremation ground at Putiappu side. There are 12 Muslim burial grounds managed by Mosques. In addition there are two Christian burial grounds at Putiappu and one at Murad.

DISTRICT AND LOCAL BOARDS

Malabar District Board. There are no District Boards in Kerala except the Malabar District Board. It functions under the provisions of the Madras District Boards Act 1920 as amended from time to time. The Board consisted of elected members and its executive authority was vested in the President who was elected by the members from among themselves. The term of office of the members was three years. The last general elections were held in October 1954 and the term of the District Board expired on 27th October 1957. A Special Officer assumed charge on that date to exercise the powers and functions of the Malabar District Board under the Madras District Boards Act 1920. With the coming into force of the Kerala Panchayats Act 1960 the Malabar District Boards Act 1920 will be repealed and the Special Officer appointed for the Board will cease to hold Office. Such functions of the Malabar District as are the functions of a Panchayat under the provisions of the Act of 1960 shall stand transferred to the Panchayats concerned and the remaining functions to the Government.

PANCHAYATS

Early History.

The famous Resolution of Lord Ripon dated May 18, 1882 was the first important step taken by the Government to give practical shape to the scheme for the extension of local self-government from the urban to the rural areas. The Madras Local Boards Act 1884 was the direct outcome of this Resolution. Under the Act District Boards, Taluk Boards and Union Boards were first constituted. The Union Boards were formed for semi-urban areas mainly for the purpose of dealing with village roads, sanitation and lighting. The next mile-stone in the growth of village self-government was marked by the Government of India Resolution of 1915 recommending to the Provincial Governments the constitution of Village Panchayats for the administration of local affairs. In pursuance of this Resolution informal Panchayats were constituted in individual revenue villages. They functioned as administrative and communal bodies working on a voluntary basis. But the results achieved by them were not satisfactory. The existence of these informal Panchayats functioning side by side with the statutory unions constituted for larger villages and groups of villages under the Madras Local Boards Act 1884 created an anomalous position. It was felt by the Government that if the informal Panchayats should function more effectively they should be placed on a statutory basis and given legal foundation. They therefore enacted the Madras Village Panchayats Act which came into force in 1920. However, even after the enactment of this measure the Panchayats and Unions continued to function in the rural areas discharging more or less similar functions under different Acts. Consequently the Madras Village Panchayats Act 1920 was repealed and all the Panchayats were brought under the scope of the Madras Local Boards Act 1920 which governed the constitution and working of the Village Unions. The difference between the Panchayats and Unions however continued till 1937 when Panchayats were brought under the same system of administration for all purposes and simply classified as "major" and "minor" for audit purposes. With a view to improving further the efficiency of Panchayat Administration the Madras Local Boards Act 1920 was amended by the Government in 1943 to provide for the appointment of Executive Officers for such Panchayats as were notified by the Government.

It may also be noted in this connection that under the Madras Local Boards Act 1920 the Panchayats in the District

were under the control of the Malabar District Board on the one hand; and the Inspector of Municipal Councils and Local Boards on the other. The budgets of the Panchayats were passed by the District Board and whatever taxes they levied were done only with the approval of the District Board. Even for supersession of Panchayats the remarks of the District Board were duly considered by the Government. This dual control militated against the effective functioning of the Panchayats. The Madras Village Panchayats Act of 1946 was therefore enacted during the Adviser's regime releasing Village Panchayats from this dual control and placing them in charge of the District Collectors and a Registrar-General of Panchayats. This Act was allowed to lapse in April 1948 and in its place was enacted the Madras Village Panchayats Act 1950 which conferred very large powers on Panchayats and limited the control of the District Collectors to certain emergency powers. This Act was brought into force on 1st April, 1951 and it governed the constitution of the Panchayats in the District till the passing of the Kerala Panchayats Act (1960) and the progressive enforcement of its provisions with effect from June 20, 1960.[1]

Organisation and Structure.

Under the Madras Village Panchayats Act a Panchayat is constituted for every village with a population of 500 and above. A village with a population of less than 500 is included within the jurisdiction of an adjoining Panchayat or grouped with other contiguous villages and a single Panchayat formed for the group. The Panchayat area is divided into wards for purposes of election, due provision being made for the reservation of seats to Scheduled Castes. The total number of seats reserved in the Panchayats for the members of Scheduled Castes should not however exceed 1|5th of the strength of the Panchayat excluding the President. If the Scheduled Castes in a Panchayat out number the other communities no reservation is admissible. The strength of a Panchayat ranges from 5 to 15 members according to population. The number of members of Panchayats are fixed as shown below on the basis of population.

1. The Kerala Panchayats Act (1960) is being implemented in stages. Some of the provisions of the Act were enforced with effect from 20th June 1960 and some others with effect from 1st January 1962. In July 1962 the entire Act with the exception of about half a dozen provisions had come into force. A brief outline of the Kerala Panchayats Act (1960) is given in Appendix V.

Population				*Number of members exclusive of the President.*
20,000 and above				15
Below 20,000	but not below		15,000	14
,, 15,000	,,		12,000	13
,, 12,000	,,		10,000	12
,, 10,000	,,		7,500	10
,, 7,500	,,		5,000	8
,, 5,000	,,		2,500	7
,, 2,500	,,		1,000	6
,, 1,000				5

The President of the Panchayat is elected directly by the voters of the whole electorate and the Vice-President from among the members of the Panchayats.

Another important change introduced by the Act of 1950 was the classification of Panchayats into Class I and Class II on the basis of both population and income. Panchayats with a population of not less than 5,000 and an estimated annual income of not less than Rs. 10,000 are classified as Class I Panchayats and the rest as Class II Panchayats. Out of 86 Panchayats now functioning in the Kozhikode District 13 are Class I Panchayats and 73 Class II Panchayats. It may also be mentioned in this connection that under orders issued by the Government of Kerala in 1957 all Panchayats with income exceeding Rs. 15,000 are being classified as Group I, those with incomes ranging between 5,000 and 15,000 as Group II, and all others as Group III[1]. But this grouping is made only for appointment of Executive Officers.

Administration and Control.

The Presidents are the executive authorities in the case of Class II Panchayats. Executive Officers are appointed by Government to Class I Panchayats for carrying on their administration. The audit of the accounts of Class I Panchayats is done by the Local Fund Audit Department while that of Class II Panchayats is done by the Deputy Panchayat Officers. The audit report is reviewed by the District Panchayat Officer in the case of Class II Panchayats and the Deputy Director of Panchayats in the case of Class I Panchayats. The budgets of Class I

1. Vide G.P. Order L.A. 16725|55|P.D. dated December 3, 1957.

Panchayats are approved and modified by the Deputy Director while the District Panchayat Officer performs this function in the case of Class II Panchayats.

It may be noted in this connection that there are 31 Extension Officers for Panchayats-cum-Deputy Panchayat Officers in this District. Out of this 29 are attached to the N. E. S. Blocks and two to non-Block areas. They are to supervise and inspect the Panchayats in general and audit the accounts of Class II Panchayats. Besides, the Deputy Panchayat Officers attached to the N.E.S. Blocks have also to carry on the extension work in the Block areas.

Functions of Panchayats.

Under the Madras Village Panchayats Act 1950 the Panchayats are empowered to perform a variety of functions of a civic nature. Some of them are obligatory and some voluntary. The obligatory functions exercised by the Panchayats in this District under the Act are detailed below.

(a) Construction, repair and maintenance of all public roads in the village (other than district roads and roads which are classified by the Government as National and State Highways) and of all bridges, culverts, road-dams and cause-ways on such roads. The minimum expenditure fixed for communications is 20 per cent of the nominal income.

(b) The lighting of public roads and public places. The maximum expenditure fixed is 15 per cent of the nominal income.

(c) The construction of drains and the disposal of drainage water and sullage.

(d) The cleansing of streets, the removal of the rubbish heaps, jungle growth and prickly-pear, the filling in of disused wells, insanitary ponds, ditches, pits or hollows and other improvements relating to the sanitary condition of the village. The maximum expenditure fixed for Public Health is 30 per cent of the nominal income.

(e) The provision of public latrines and arrangements to cleanse latrines, whether public or private.

(f) The opening and maintenance of burial and burning grounds.

(g) The sinking and repairing of wells, the excavation, repair and maintenance of ponds or tanks and the construction and maintenance of water-works for the supply of water for

washing and bathing purposes and of protected water for drinking purposes. The minimum expenditure is 10 per cent of the nominal income.

(h) Preventive and remedial measures connected with any epidemic or with malaria.

The voluntary functions i.e., matters in respect of which a Panchayat may make such provision as it thinks fit for carrying out the requirements of the village, are enumerated below.

(a) Planting and preservation of trees on the side of public roads in the village, not being district roads or roads classified by the Government as National or State Highways.

(b) Opening and maintenance of public markets, other than markets which are classified as district markets.

(c) Control of fairs and festivals, other than those classified as district fairs and festivals.

(d) Opening and maintenance of public landing places, halting places and cart-stands and of public cattle-sheds.

(e) Opening and maintenance of public slaughter-houses.

(f) Establishment and maintenance of choultries other than those classified as district choultries.

(g) Extension of Village sites and regulation of buildings.

(h) Registration of births and deaths.

(i) Improvement of agriculture and agricultural stock and the holding of agricultural shows.

(j) Promotion and encouragement of cottage industries.

(k) Opening and maintenance of elementary schools.

(l) Opening and maintenance of reading rooms and libraries which are not classified as district libraries.

(m) Establishment and maintenance of wireless receiving sets, play-grounds, sports clubs and centres of physical culture.

(n) Establishment and maintenance of maternity dispensaries and payment of subsidies to rural medical practitioners.

(o) Establishment and maintenance of maternity and child-welfare centres.

(p) Veterinary relief.

(q) Other measures of public utility calculated to promote the safety, health, comfort or convenience of the inhabitants of the village.

It has also been provided that two or more Panchayats may establish and maintain common dispensaries, child welfare centres etc. In addition the Government may entrust to Panchayats work connected with irrigation. The Board of Revenue may entrust to Panchayats also the management and superintendence of any charitable endowments. The Panchayats may also execute minor public works. Moreover, all unreserved forests in a village are vested in the Panchayats and administered by them for the benefit of the villagers as a whole.

Financial Resources of Panchayats.

The main sources of income of Panchayats are (1) house tax, (2) profession tax, (3) vehicle tax, (4) entertainment tax, (5) licence fees from dangerous and offensive trades, (6) income from private and public markets, (7) land cess, (8) magisterial fines, (9) grants from Government, (10) income from ferries and (11) duty on transfers of property.

The house tax is levied either on the basis of the annual or capital value of the building or the plinth area thereof, subject to the maximum and minimum rates prescribed by the Government. Thatched houses having a plinth area not exceeding 50 square feet are however exempted from the levy of house tax.

The profession tax is levied on the out-turn of any business or calling of a person within the Panchayat area. The maximum amount leviable under this head is Rs. 125 per half year for an half-yearly income exceeding Rs. 15,000 and the minimum is 50 nP. per half year for an half-yearly income ranging between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600. The Panchayat is to determine the tax leviable in each case subject to the maximum and minimum rates prescribed.

The vehicle tax is levied on all vehicles kept or used in the Panchayat area for a specified period subject to the maximum and minimum rates prescribed. The tax cannot however be levied on (1) vehicles belonging to the Central and State Governments used for military purposes, (2) vehicles kept

solely for sale by manufacturers of vehicles and dealers and (3) vehicles which have been under repair or kept idle at a vehicle maker's shop during the whole of the half year.

The entertainment tax ranges between 10 per cent and 25 per cent of the value of the tickets collected. It is assessed and levied by the Sales Tax Department and deposited to the accounts of the Panchayat. 90% goes to the Panchayat and 10% is reserved in the Sales Tax Department as the collection charge. The Panchayat issues licenses to individuals for controlling dangerous and offensive trades. The license fees are fixed under bye-laws framed for this purpose.

License fees for the use of public halting places and cart stands are levied by Panchayats at prescribed rates.

Fees are charged for granting permission for installation in any premises of a machinery or manufacturing plant driven by electric power. Similarly the Panchayat is also entitled to levy fees for the installation in any premises of any machinery or manufacturing plant driven by power other than electricity.

The rates of taxes to be levied from private markets are left to the discretion of the Panchayats. The public markets are sold in auction.

A Panchayat which has been working at a deficit for more than two consecutive years may with the sanction of Government levy the land cess.

The ferries of the Panchayats which are sold in public auction also fetch some revenue to the Panchayat fund.

Magisterial fines and grants from Government also add to the revenue of Panchayats, but they cannot be fixed.

The Government have fixed the rate of duty on transfers of property in respect of instruments of sale, exchange, gift, mortgage with possession, and lease in perpetuity of immovable property as 4% on the amount on which the transfer duty is levied, and this is also another source of income for Panchayats.

A statement of the income of two Panchayats in the District viz., Meppadi (Class I) and Pandikkad (Class II) for the year 1958-59 is given below.

Statement of Income of Meppadi and Pandikkad Panchayats for 1958-59.

	Name of Panchayat			
	Meppadi		Pandikkad	
	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.
Land cess	1,528	98	.	.
House tax	17,026	55	344	74
Profession tax	4,989	00	765	00
Vehicle tax	83	94	74	32
Entertainment tax	8,209	81	.	..
License fee	12,107	49	265	00
Income from public market	..	..	..	..
Income from private market	126	00	109	20
Income from all other miscellaneous items	18,127	23	1,581	97

A statement of the receipts and expenditure of these two Panchayats for the same year is also given below.

Statement of Receipts and Expenditure of Meppadi and Pandikkad Panchayats for 1958-59.

	Name of Panchayat			
	Meppadi		Pandikkad	
	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.
Opening balance	13,908	59	614	24
Receipts during the year including grants	1,12,199	10	3,240	23
Grand total	1,26,107	69	3,754	47
Expenditure during the year	90,324	03	2,157	83
Balance	35,783	66	1,596	64

ACTIVITIES AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF PANCHAYATS

The Panchayats in this District carry on manifold activities. They attend to the execution of certain items of minor public works in co-operation with the local people

and the local authorities. In 1959-60 all the Panchayats in the District were given a Block grant of Rs. 835 each irrespective of class distinction for development works in their areas and all the Panchayats utilised the grants properly. The Panchayats are also associated with the execution of minor irrigation works recommended by them and approved by the District Development Council.

The Panchayats devote much attention to the provision of public health amenities to the local people to the maximum extent possible. In this field the activities of Panchayats include provision of good drinking water, popularisation and construction of sanitary buildings and urinal sheds, watering of roads during hot season, removal of rubbish and cleaning of drains, control of offensive and dangerous trades, maintenance of manure depots etc. Hotels and tea shops are controlled by the Panchayats by issuing licences. The provisions of the Food Adulteration Act and the rules issued thereunder are also strictly enforced by them. Medical relief in villages is rendered by Panchayats by encouraging the Grant-in-aid Ayurveda and Visha Vaidyasalas. The Panchayats give grants for conducting such Vaidyasalas.

Street sweeping and scavenging services are also carried out by some of the Panchayats by engaging paid sweepers and scavengers. Maternity and Child Welfare Centres and Milk Canteens are also being conducted by some. In places where people suffer great loss due to natural calamities like floods, cyclones, sea erosion, etc., the Panchayats undertake measures for giving relief to the people. Another problem that the Panchayats have to face is the scarcity of pure drinking water. Sinking of new wells, improvement of old ones, and supply of water in lorries are works undertaken by them to solve this difficulty. The Trikkandiyur and Beypore Panchayats in the District have arranged for water supply to relieve the scarcity of drinking water in their respective areas. In Feroke Panchayat water supply has been made under Local Development Scheme at a cost of Rs. 24,000.

Some of the Panchayats in the District are conducting minor ferries in their areas. The Panchayats at Trikkandiyur, Quilandi and Vayittiri conduct one ferry each while that at Nilambur conducts two ferries.

Street lighting is an important and normal function of the Panchayats. Street lights have been installed in some of the Panchayats while kerosene oil lights are provided in those areas where electricity has not been introduced. In this District almost all Class I Panchayats except Kidanganad have installed electric lights in their areas.[1] Among Class II Panchayats Nediyiruppu, Kondotti, Tanur, Valiyora, Nerippetta, Kunnummakkara, Perambra, Nallalam, Nanminda and Kottooli have been able to provide electric lights in their areas. But almost all Panchayats provide kerosene oil lights.

The Panchayats bestow their attention not only on the economic needs of the villages but also on their social and cultural activities. The Panchayats at Balusseri, Feroke, Nilambur, Manjeri and Vayittiri are maintaining parks in their respective areas. The Panchayats at Kunnamangalam, Cherukulathur, Chattamangalam, Manasseri, Pannikkode, Kodiyathur, Mavur and Kanniparamba are maintaining Reading Rooms and Libraries. Moreover, a number of Panchayats give grants to libraries and reading rooms situated in their areas. The Meppadi Panchayat conducts a Lower Primary School. The Nilambur Panchayat gave a grant of Rs. 500 to the Mappila Upper Primary School with the sanction of the Collector in 1958-59. The Panchayats also encourage sports, recreation clubs and *kala samithies* in their social and cultural activities. Some of them also take an active part in the implementation of the Small Savings Scheme. Most of the Panchayats in the District are also maintaining Community Radio Sets supplied by the Department of Local Bodies under the Government of India Subsidy Scheme.

PANCHAYAT RAJ

A scheme for 'Panchayat Raj' novel in conception and revolutionary in approach, has been formulated by the Government with a view to making the Panchayats the basic units of administration at the village level. It was introduced as an experimental measure in certain selected N.E.S. Blocks in the State with effect from 15th January, 1960. It seeks to entrust to the Panchayats normal regulatory functions of the Government at the village level. Under the scheme the Govern-

1. These Class I Panchayats are Vayittiri, Quilandi, Balusseri, Beypore, Meppadi, Kalpetta, Nadapuram, Trikkandiyur, Nilambur, Manjeri and Feroke.

ment will make the Panchayats their accredited agents and entrust to them financial and administrative responsibilities in regard to several matters relating to the development and welfare of the community. They will be given grants-in-aid for various purposes to be supplemented by contributions from Panchayats and public subscriptions or donations.

Under Panchayat Raj the Panchayats will be associated with the implementation of National Extension Service Schemes. The following is a brief summary of the activities entrusted to Panchayats in this connection. The Panchayats should draw up an Agricultural Production Programme for the villages in their jurisdiction. Opening of seed multiplication centres, kitchen gardens, green manure nurseries etc. would all be undertaken by them. Irrigation and reclamation works would also be executed out of the funds provided in the Block Budgets. The Panchayats would also be entrusted with the work of construction of new wells, repair of old ones, construction of new latrines for schools and other public places, and construction of bathing ghats. They may open adult education centres, children's parks and conduct Gramasahayak camps, sports and youth festivals etc. New roads, culverts and foot bridges to be constructed within the Panchayat area out of Block funds will be undertaken by Panchayats concerned. In regard to the execution of the various items of work mentioned above, funds in the Block Budget will be made over to the Panchayats for making necessary payments.

In addition to being associated with National Extension Service Schemes as outlined above the Panchayats would be associated more actively with the activities of Government at the village level. The responsibility for constructing village roads and maintaining existing roads within the Panchayat area will be vested in them. Original minor irrigation works the cost of which does not exceed Rs. 5,000 may be executed by Panchayats. The Presidents of the Panchayats may inspect Maternity and Child Health Centres in their jurisdiction and supervise the work of the Health Assistants. The relief given at the time of floods fire and similar disasters will be channelled through Panchayats. The Panchayats will also function as the co-ordinating agency of all Voluntary Social Service Organisations, and all aid given for social welfare work will be channelled through them. They may also make

recommendations to the Government in regard to the working of the Libraries affiliated to the Kerala Granthasala Sangham. The Presidents of the Panchayats will also visit Primary Schools in their jurisdiction and see to it that the attendance of both students and teachers is satisfactory. They will enter their remarks in a register maintained specifically for the purpose in each school, and the same will be forwarded to the authorities within a specific period for necessary action. The maintenance of Government Schools and provision of equipments will also form part of the duties of the Panchayats under "Panchayat Raj'. The Panchayats will also be responsible for the administration of the Mid-day Meal for school children. As the Panchayats at present do not have sufficient administrative or financial powers, they will be invested with these powers by specific orders so as to enable them to act with initiative and responsibility. Each Panchayat will also have a Panchayat Officer to help it in its work. With the full implementation of the Scheme detailed above the Panchayats would become full-fledged units of administration at the village level. It may be mentioned in this connection that the Panchayats in the N.E.S. Blocks of Balusseri and Wandur in this District have been selected by Government for the introduction of the Scheme of Panchayat Raj.

APPENDIX I

The Calicut City Municipal Act—A brief outline*

The Calicut Municipal Act (Act XXX of 1961) raises the Calicut Municipality to a Corporation. The Municipal authorities charged with carrying out the provisions of the Act are (1) the Council, (2) the Standing Committees of the Council and (3) the Commissioner.

The Council is to consist of such number of Councillors as may be notified by the Government provided that such number is not less than 40 and more than 50. The Councillors are to be elected by the Municipal electors. There is provision for reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes in the Council. The term of office of the Councillors is five years. In addition to the elected Councillors the Council may elect by proportional representation by single transferable vote a person or persons having special knowledge or experience on any subject relating to municipal administration to be special Councillor or Councillors for such subject. Every special Councillor is to exercise the rights of a Councillor only in respect of the subject for which he is elected. He may attend any meeting of the Council and take part in the discussion of any other subject without the right of voting. The Mayor is to decide whether a special Councillor may vote on a subject, and his decision is final. There should not however be more than two special Councillors on the Council at any time.

The Calicut City Municipal Act provides for the formation of three Standing Committees for dealing respectively with (1) Taxation and finance, (2) Works, and (3) Health. The Council may with the sanction of Government constitute additional Standing Committees for such purposes as it deems fit. Each Standing Committee is to consist of five members elected by the Council from among its own members but no Councillor is to be a member of more than one Standing Committee at the same time.

The Commissioner is a full-time officer under the Corporation and is to hold office for such period as the Government may decide. The executive power for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Municipal Act is vested in him. He is to perform all the duties and exercise all the powers specifically imposed or conferred on him. He has the right to attend

*The Act has come into force with effect from November 1, 1962.

the meetings of the Council and of any Standing Committee and to take part in its discussions, but he does not possess the right to move any resolution or to vote. The Commissioner is also vested with certain extraordinary powers to be exercised by him for the service and safety of the public in case of emergency.

The Calicut Municipal Corporation is to have a Mayor and a Deputy Mayor. Both are to be elected by the Council from among its members and to hold office for a one year term.. The Chairmen of the Standing Committees are also to be elected in the same way as the Mayor and the Deputy Mayor and are to hold office for a period of one year. An out-going Mayor, Deputy Mayor or Chairman is eligible for re-election. The Mayor is to have access to all the records of the Corporation and is empowered to demand reports from the Commissioner on any matter connected with the administration of the Corporation. There is to be no official correspondence between the Corporation and the Government except through the Mayor. He is an *ex-officio* member of every Standing Committee and of every other Committee constituted by the Corporation under the Act. The Deputy Mayor is to perform the functions of the Mayor when the office of the latter falls vacant, or if the Mayor has to be continuously absent from the City for more than 15 days or is incapacitated. The Mayor may also by an order in writing delegate any of his functions to the Deputy Mayor. It may be noted in this connection that the Trivandrum City Corporation Act does not provide for the office of a Deputy Mayor.

Under the provisions of the Calicut City Municipal Act the Council is empowered to collect the following taxes:— (1) property tax, (2) a profession tax, (3) a tax on animals and vehicles, (4) a show tax, (5) a tax on timber brought into the city, (6) a tax on advertisements, and (7) a duty on certain transfers of property in the shape of an additional stamp duty. The property tax is to comprise of (a) a tax for general purposes, (b) a scavenging tax, (c) a water and drainage tax and (d) a lighting tax. The proportion of the tax is not to be less than 15% or more than 25% of the annual value of the building or land as determined by the Commissioner. The profession tax is to be levied from those who exercise a profession, art or calling or transact business or hold any appointment, public or private, within the city for not less than 60

days in the aggregate. The assessment is subject to the maximum rates specified under the Act against each class. The maximum half-yearly tax ranges from Rs. 125 for an half-yearly income of more than Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 3 for more than Rs. 600 but not more than Rs. 1,200. The tax on animals, vessels and vehicles is to be paid by every person if the animal, vessel or vehicle is to be kept or housed in the city for an aggregate period of not less than 60 days in the half-year. The show tax is levied on all shows within the city, at the rate of Rs. 2 for cinematograph exhibitions and Rs. 5 for other shows. The tax on timber which is a special feature for the Calicut City Municipal Act is to be levied by the Council on timber brought into the City at rates not exceeding Rs. 5 per ton, but it is not to be levied on any timber brought into the City in the course of transit to any place outside or directly removed out of the City by rail, road, or water. The tax on advertisements is to be levied from every person who erects, exhibits, fixes, or retains upon any land, building, wall or structure, any advertisement or who displays any advertisement to public eye in any manner whatsoever within the City. The rates are subject to the maximum and minimum laid down by the Government. The duty on transfer of property is to be levied in the form of a surcharge on the duty imposed by the Kerala Stamp Act 1959, on every instrument pertaining to sale, exchange, gift, mortgage with possession, or lease in perpetuity of immovable property within the limits of the City at such rates as may be fixed by the Government.

The functions of the Corporation under the Calicut City Municipal Act are not substantially different from those of Municipal bodies elsewhere under similar enactments. The most important of the functions may be briefly mentioned. The Council is authorised to make arrangements for water supply, lighting, and drainage within the Municipal area. All public streets in the City not reserved under the control of the Central or State Governments are vested in the Corporation. The Council is vested with powers to license hotels, restaurants and places in which animals are kept. All stables, cattle sheds, and cow houses are to be under the survey and control of the Commissioner in regard to their site, construction, materials and dimensions. The Council may also construct public landing places, halting places, cart stands, cattle sheds

and cow houses and levy such fees for the use of the same as the Standing Committee may fix. It shall also set apart places for the use of the public for bathing purposes and for washing animals. It shall also provide for a sufficient number of places for use as Municipal slaughter-houses and recover such rents and fees as are determined by the Standing Committee for their use. It may also provide buildings for use as public markets. No person shall carry on milk trade, or run a private market, without a license from the Municipal Commissioner. The Corporation is also to register all births and deaths occurring in the City. It is also its duty to take steps to prevent the spread of infectious diseases and epidemics. Compulsory vaccination against small-pox throughout the City is to be enforced by the Corporation authorities.

APPENDIX II

The Kerala Municipalities Act 1960—A brief outline.

The Kerala Municipalities Act 1960 (Act XIV of 1961) came into force with effect from October 1, 1961. The Municipal authorities charged with carrying out the provisions of the Act are:— (1) a Council, (2) a Standing Committee of the Council, (3) a Chairman and (4) a Commissioner.

The Municipal Council is to consist of such number of Councillors as may be notified by the Government in accordance with the following table:—

Municipalities with a population.				*Number of Councillors.*
Not exceeding 20,000				16
Exceeding	20,000	but not exceeding	30,000	20
,,	30,000	,,	40,000	24
,,	40,000	,,	50,000	28
,,	50,000	,,	100,000	32
,,	100,000			36

All the Councillors are to be elected. Seats are reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Council. A special feature of the Act is that seats are also reserved for women in the Council. The number of seats reserved for women is one when the sanctioned strength of the Council is twenty or less, and two when it exceeds twenty. The term of office of the Councillors is five years. The Act also provides for nomination by the Council of a person or persons having special knowledge or experience on any subject relating to municipal administration to be special Councillors for the subject. However, there should not be more than two special Councillors on the Council at any time.

Every Council is to elect one of its members as its Chairman and another as its Vice-Chairman. The Chairman convenes and presides over the meetings of the Council. He performs all the duties and exercises all the powers specifically imposed or conferred on him by the Act. He has full access to all the records of the Council while all official correspondence between the Council and the Government is to be conducted only through him. When the office of the Chairman falls vacant or when the Chairman is continuously absent from his jurisdiction for more than fifteen days or is incapacitated, the Vice-Chairman is to exercise the functions of the Chairman. The Chairman may by an order in writing delegate any of his functions to the Vice-Chairman. An out-going Chairman or Vice-Chairman is eligible for re-election.

The Standing Committee of the Council is to be elected by the Council from its own members. It is to consist of five members when the sanctioned strength of the Council is twenty or less and seven members when the sanctioned strength is more than twenty. It is to elect

one of its members to be its Chairman and he is entitled to hold office as long as he continues as a member of the Committee. The powers and duties of the Standing Committee are to be determined by the Council under bye-laws framed for the purpose. In addition to the powers and duties conferred or imposed by or under the Act or such bye-laws the Standing Committee:— (a) shall supervise the utilisation of the budget grants; (b) shall have access to the accounts of the Council and may require the Commissioner to furnish any explanation which it considers to be necessary as to the receipts and expenditure of the municipal fund; (c) may conduct a monthly audit of the municipal accounts and disbursements for the preceding month as furnished by the Commissioner; and (d) may, at the instance of the Commissioner and with the sanction of the Council, write off such sums due to the Council as appear to the Committee to be irrecoverable. In addition to the Standing Committee, the Council may constitute other Committees for the purpose of exercising such powers, discharging such duties, or performing such functions as it may delegate to them. Moreover, if so required by the Government it has to join with one or more than one local authority in constituting a Joint Committee for any purpose in which they are jointly interested.

The Commissioner of the Municipality is to be appointed by the Government in consultation with the Council. If the Council were to demand his transfer by a resolution passed by a majority vote of its sanctioned strength, Government are bound to transfer him. The Commissioner is responsible for the custody of all the records of the Council, the Standing Committee and other Committees. He is to carry into effect the resolutions of the Council and furnish periodical reports to it regarding the progress made by him in carrying them out. He is also invested with certain emergency powers to be exercised by him for the service and safety of the public. In short, he is to exercise the executive power for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Act and is directly responsible for the due fulfilment of the purposes of the Act.

Every Municipal Council may levy (1) a property tax, (2) a profession tax, (3) a tax on animals, vessels and vehicles, (4) a show tax, (5) a tax on advertisements, and (6) a duty on certain transfers of immovable property in the shape of an additional stamp duty.

The property tax is to comprise of (a) a tax for general purposes and (b) a service tax comprising of a water and drainage tax, a lighting tax, and a sanitary tax. These taxes are to be levied at such percentages of the annual value of lands or buildings or both as may be fixed by the Council. However, the aggregate of the percentage so fixed is not to be less than 10 per cent and more than 25 per cent of the annual value of all lands or buildings or both, and the tax for general purposes, the lighting tax and the sanitary tax should not be less than the following minimum rates:—

	Minimum rate.
(1) Tax for general purposes	5%
(2) Lighting tax	2%
(3) Sanitary tax	3%

The profession tax may be levied from those who exercise a profession, art or calling or transact business or hold appointment, public or private, within the Municipality for not less than 60 days in the aggregate. The rate of tax is subject to the maximum prescribed for each income group in the Schedule to the Act. The maximum half-yearly tax leviable ranges from Rs. 125 for an half-yearly income of more than Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 3 for an half-yearly income of Rs. 600 but not more than Rs. 1,200.

The tax on animals, vessels and vehicles may be levied by the Council at rates determined by it provided that they do not exceed the maximum laid down as follows in the Schedule to the Act.

	Half-yearly tax.
	Rs.
For every elephant	12
" camel	6
" horse, mule or pony	3
" bullock or bull or male buffaloe	2
" pig	2
" donkey	1
" dog	1
" motor boat or steam launch plying for hire and carrying more than six passengers	30
" steam or motor tug	50
" barge or other vessel attached or attachable to a steam or motor tug	25
" other motor boat or steam launch	15
" cabin boat	2.50
" vallom	2
" cart or carriage drawn by horses	6
" carriage drawn by other animals	4
" hand cart or push cart	2
" bicycle, tricycle or cycle rickshaw	2

The show tax may be levied by the Municipal Council at the rate of two Rupees for Cinematograph exhibitions and five Rupees for other shows.

The duty on transfers of property may be levied in the form of a surcharge on the duty imposed by the Kerala Stamp Act 1959 on every instrument pertaining to sale, exchange, gift, mortgage with possession, or lease in perpetuity of immovable property within the limits of the Municipality at such rates as may be fixed by the Government.

The tax on advertisements may be levied from every person who erects, exhibits, fixes or retains upon any land, building, wall or structure any advertisement or who displays any advertisement to public view in any manner what so ever in any place, whether public or private, provided that the rates conform to the maximum and minimum laid down by the Government for the purpose.

In addition to the taxes specified above, the Council may with the sanction of the Government levy a surcharge on any tax other than profession tax levied by the Council for the purpose of providing any specific civic service or amenity provided that such surcharge does not exceed ten per cent of the amount of the tax.

Every Municipality constituted under the Kerala Municipalities Act 1960 is also vested with routine civic functions such as those relating to the provision of water supply, lighting, and drainage, maintenance and repair of streets, numbering of buildings, grant of permission to construct buildings, control over abandoned lands and insanitary buildings, grant of licence for places in which animals are kept, provision of Municipal slaughter houses, regulation of milk trade, maintenance of public markets, provision of public cart stands, licensing of places for disposal of the dead, compulsory registration of vital statistics, compulsory vaccination etc., etc.

APPENDIX—III

Financial position of the Calicut Municipality

Head of Account	Receipts		Expenditure	
	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61
General Taxation and Miscellaneous revenue	10,13,219.28	7,44,745.63	..	..
Management	4,069.57	18,912.27	1,23,814.13	1,12,653.40
Communication	72,208.68	79,038.99	3,30,903.94	4,20,412.53
Public Health	1,67,012.78	1,76,869.55	8,51,989.27	8,29,549.93
Remunerative enterprises	3,13,524.08	4,38,726.53	1,24,427.19	2,82,145.19
Water and drainage Account	5,84,644.10	3,68,091.61	4,74,710.57	1,80,031.12
Town Planning Account	54,230.25	..	45,106.15	50,438.40
Extraordinary items	..	..	5,000.00	2,000.06
Capital Expenditure	..	..	8,60,345.42	10,38,227.37
Total	22,08,908.74	18.26,384.58	28,16,296.67	29,15,458.00

	1959-60	1960-61
Debts	17,91,179.55	16,61,445.11
Investments	6,81,545.61	7,18,430.25

APPENDIX—IV

Financial position of the Badagara Municipality

Head of Account	1959-60		1960-61	
	Receipts	Expenditure	Receipts	Expenditure
General taxation and miscellaneous revenue	36,688.32	.	88,520.94	..
Management	263.06	24,421.24	1,187.73	25,590.42
Communication	4,329.06	17,147.63	1,346.30	11,349.52
Education	..	195.80	..	569.73
Public Health	14,738.24	33,543.59	9,769.12	43,605.93
Remunerative enterprises	16,329.08	10,121.00	25,996.79	..
Light	..	..	12,281.57	12,991.58
Water supply and drainage	.	..	4,094.18	3,433.70
Capital Accounts	..	1,902.00	..	20,985.51
Deposits and Advances	9,639.58	10,384.72	14,283.41	23,580.47
Total	81,987.34	97,715.98	157,481.04	1,42,106.86

APPENDIX V

KERALA PANCHAYATS ACT 1960

The Kerala Panchayats Act 1960 provides for a uniform law for the Panchayats in Kerala State with a view to enabling them to function effectively as units of local self-government. The Government may declare any village or group of villages or portions thereof to be panchayat area for purposes of the Act. The Administration of this area will be vested in the Panchayat. The total number of members in a Panchayat will be notified by the Director of Panchayats in accordance with such scale as is prescribed with reference to the population of the Panchayat area. According to the rules framed under the Panchayats Act 1960, Panchayat areas with a population not exceeding 10,000 at the latest census are to elect 7 members and those with a population exceeding 10,000 are to elect one additional member for every population of 3,500 subject to the condition that the minimum strength of a Panchayat shall not be less than 7 and the maximum more than 15. The Panchayat area is divided into wards for purposes of election. In those Panchayats where the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes constitute not less than 5 per cent of the total number of voters a seat is reserved for them. If a woman is not elected to any Panchayat in the ordinary course, the Panchayat shall nominate a woman to be its member and the member thus nominated would enjoy all the rights and privileges of an elected member. The term of office of the members of a Panchayat is fixed as 5 years under the Act.

Every Panchayat is to have a President and a Vice-President elected from among its members. The President convenes meetings of the Panchayat, forwards half-yearly reports to the Deputy Director of Panchayats about the work and conduct of the executive officer and discharges all the duties and exercises all the powers specifically imposed or conferred on the President by the Act. For every Panchayat a whole-time executive officer is to be appointed by the Government. The executive authority has the right to attend meetings of the Panchayat or any Committee thereof and take part in its discussions purely in an advisory capacity. He is to carry into effect the resolutions of the Panchayat, and to control the Officers and servants of the Panchayat. The President is to have full access to all records of the Panchayat and no official correspondence between the Panchayat and the Deputy Director and authorities above the Deputy Director is to be carried on except through him. The President is to preside over the meetings of the Panchayat and forward to the Inspector of Panchayats a copy of the minutes of the proceedings within seven days of the date of the meeting.

The Panchayat may constitute functional committees for different subjects like Agriculture, Sanitation, Communication, Public Health and Education consisting of both Panchayat members and others who are interested in the public welfare and who are nominated by the Panchayat. The Panchayat may also constitute Ward Committees with the ward members and other local inhabitants nominated by it to study and

report on the needs of the wards. It may also join with one or more other local authorities in constituting a joint committee for any purpose for which they are jointly responsible.

The Director of Panchayats is to supervise the administration of Panchayats and exercise the powers and perform the duties vested in him under the Act. In his task he is to be assisted by the Deputy Director and other officers subordinate to him. The Director has certain emergency powers in dealing with the Panchayats. Thus he may suspend or cancel resolutions etc. of the Panchayats, if in his opinion they have not been legally passed, and are likely to cause danger to human life, wealth or safety and disturb public peace.

The Panchayat has the following obligatory functions.

(a) the construction, repair and maintenance of all public roads in the Panchayat area other than roads classified as National Highways, State Highways, the roads of the Malabar District Board and of all bridges, culverts, road-dams and causeways on such roads;

(b) the lighting of public roads and public places;

(c) the construction of drains and the disposal of drainage water and sullage;

(d) the cleansing of streets, the removal of rubbish heaps, jungle growth and prickly-pear, the filling in of disused wells, insanitary ponds, pools, ditches, pits or hollows and other improvements of the sanitary condition of the Panchayat area;

(e) the provision of public latrines and arrangements to cleanse latrines whether public or private;

(f) the opening and maintenance of burial and burning grounds;

(g) the sinking and repairing of wells, the excavation repair and maintenance of ponds or tanks and the construction and maintenance of water-works for the supply of water for washing and bathing and drinking purposes;

(h) preventive and remedial measures connected with any epidemic or with malaria;

(i) control of offensive and dangerous trades;

(j) construction and maintenance of petty irrigation works;

(k) control of cattle pounds;

(l) registration of births and deaths.

In addition to the obligatory functions, a Panchayat may also, if it deems fit, make reasonable provision for carrying out the requirements of the Panchayat area in respect of the following matters viz.,

(1) Agriculture:—

(a) the improvement of agriculture and establishment of model agricultural farms;

(b) the establishment of granaries;

(c) bringing under cultivation waste and fallow lands belonging to or vested in the Panchayat;

(d) ensuring conservation of manurial resources, cultivation of green manure, preparing compost and sale of manure;

(e) the establishment and maintenance of nurseries of improved seeds and seedlings;

(f) provision of implements, stores, insecticides. etc;

(g) the promotion of co-operative farming;

(h) the conducting of crop experiments, launching of crop protection schemes and crop competitions;

(i) the construction, repair and maintenance of irrigation works, field channels and distribution of water;

(j) encouraging farmers' clubs and other associations of agriculturists;

(k) assistance in the implementation of land reform scheme;

(l) execution of soil conservation schemes;

(ii) Animal husbandry:—

(a) improvement of cattle and cattle breeding and the general care of livestock;

(b) the promotion of dairy farming;

(c) the maintenance of stud-bulls and stud-goats;

(d) the promotion of poultry farming and bee-keeping;

(e) conducting cattle and poultry shows;

(iii) Education and culture:—

(a) the spread, supervision and improvement of education;

(b) the establishment and maintenance of children's parks, clubs and other places of recreation for the welfare of women and youth;

(c) the promotion of art and culture including the establishment and maintenance of theatres;

(d) the establishment, maintenance and encouragement of reading rooms and libraries;

(e) noon-feeding of school children;

(f) the establishment and maintenance of community listening sets, recreation centres and centres for physical culture, sports and games;

(g) the erection of memorials for celebrities and historical personages;

(iv) Social Welfare:—

(a) maternity and child welfare including the establishment and maintenance of orphanages and foundling's home;

(b) the relief of the old and the infirm and the physically handicapped and the sick;

(c) assistance to the residents when any natural calamity occurs;

(d) family planning;

(e) organising volutary labour for community works for the development of the villages;

(f) destitute homes and beggar homes;

(v) Public health and sanitation:—

(a) preservation and improvement of public health;

(b) supply of water;

(c) sanitation, conservancy and the prevention and abatement of nuisance and disposal of carcasses of animals;

(d) the disposal of unclaimed corpse;

(e) the disposal of unclaimed cattle;

(f) the taking of measures to prevent the outbreak, spread and recurrence of any infectious disease and vaccination;

(g) the reclaiming of unhealthy localities;

(h) providing medical relief:

(i) the inoculation of animals and birds;

(j) the disposal of stray and ownerless dogs:

(k) the establishment and maintenance of dispensaries and the payment of subsidies to rural medical practitioners;

(l) control of fairs and festivals;

(m) maintenance of the purity of fish, meat and other food stuffs;

(vi) Public Works:—

(a) the planting of trees along roads, in market places and other public places and their maintenance and preservation;

(b) the construction, maintenance and control of bathing and washing ghats;

(c) the construction and maintenance of buildings for ware-houses, stores, shops, purchasing centres etc.

(d) construction and maintenance of houses under colonisation and settlement schemes;

(e) construction and maintenance of choultries and rest houses;

(f) construction and maintenance of houses for Panchayat staff and other village functionaries;

(g) the establishment and maintenance of works for the provision of employment, particularly in times of scarcity;

(h) the extension of village sites and the regulation of buildings and housing schemes;

(i) the opening of and maintenance of public markets, slaughter-houses, bus-stands, cart-stands, landing places, halting places and ferries and also the licensing of such places opened and maintained by private individuals and institutions; and

(vii) General:—

(a) preparation of plans for the development of the Panchayat area;

(b) the promotion, improvement and encouragement of cottage and village industries;

(c) promotion of pisciculture;

(d) preservation of objects of archaeological interest;

(e) the promotion of social and moral welfare of the inhabitants of the Panchayat area including the promotion of prohibition, promotion of social equality, amelioration of the condition of the backward classes, the eradicating of corruption and the discouragement of gambling, litigation and other anti-social activities;

(f) the encouragement of any of the services and activities mentioned in the foregoing clauses of this section by grant-in-aid or otherwise;

(g) any other measure of work which is likely to promote the health, safety, education, comfort, convenience or social or economic or cultural well-being of the inhabitants of the Panchayat area.

It may be noted that the Government may by notification in the Gazette declare any of the above optional functions to be obligatory duties or functions of Panchayats.

Every Panchayat has to levy in its area a building tax, a profession tax and a vehicle tax. The building tax has to be levied on all buildings in the Panchayat area at such percentage of the net annual rental value of the building as may be fixed by the Panchayat subject to a maximum of 10 per cent and a minimum of 4 per cent. The profession tax has to be levied from every company which transacts business and every person who exercises a profession within the Panchayat area at such rates as may fixed by the Panchayat not exceeding the maximum rates prescribed under the rules. The vehicle tax may be levied on all vehicles except motor vehicles kept or used in the Panchayat area at such rates as may be fixed by the Panchayat not exceeding the maximum rates prescribed. A cess on all lands in the Panchayat area except those exempted by the Government has to be levied at the rate of 2 nP. per annum for every 5 cents of land or part thereof. Land cess is to be collected as if it is a basic tax. Service tax not exceeding such rates as may be prescribed for sanitation, water supply, scavenging, street lighting and drainage may be levied with the sanction of the Director. A duty in the form of a surcharge on the duty imposed by the Kerala Stamp Act 1960 shall be levied on certain transfers of property in the Panchayat area. The Panchayat may, if it resolves, also levy a show tax on all shows in its area at the rates prescribed by the Government. The Act also provides for payment by the Government annually to each Panchayat a grant which shall be equal as near as may be to 3|4 of the amount of basic tax collected by the Government from the Panchayat area in the preceding year. The Government shall also pay to the Panchayats a grant the aggregate of which shall be as near as may be equal to the balance of the basic tax collected by the Government in the preceding year from all the lands in the State in such proportion as may be fixed by the Government in having regard to the area population, available resources

and needs of development of the Panchayats and the cost of the Panchayat administration. In addition a Panchayat may with the sanction of the Director levy either from the whole Panchayat area or for any specific portion thereof for a specified period a surcharge on building tax in order to cover any unusual expense incurred by it in respect of education, treatment of diseases including maternity and child welfare services, supply of protected water, scavenging and drainage. The surcharge is however not to exceed 1|4 of the tax levied.

The Act also vests water courses, springs, reservoirs, tanks, fountains, wells, etc. in the Panchayat for proper maintenance and control. The Panchayat is also entitled to provide places for use as public markets. It may also parcel out any portion of a public market and lease it by auction or otherwise, or levy fees in any public market at prescribed rates (Eg:— fees for the use of the market, fees on vehicles or animals brought into the market, license fees on brokers, commission agents etc.). The private markets are to be licenced by Panchayats after charging the prescribed fees. The Panchayat may also provide public landing places, cart stands, public slaughter places and enjoy such income as it may derive from such enterprises. It is also vested with control over dangerous and offensive trades and factories.

CHAPTER - XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Historical Background

The Kozhikode District represents an advanced portion of the erstwhile Malabar area of the State in point of literacy and educational progress. There were reputed centres of learning and culture in the District even in the early and medieval periods. One of the most important of such centres was Calicut city itself. Under the rule of the enlightened Zamorins it became famous all over South India as a great rendezvous of scholars and men of learning. The annual assembly of scholars known as *Revathi Pattathanam* which was held here under the patronage of the Zamorins used to attract scholars of eminence from far and near.[1] Yet another educational and cultural centre was Tirunavai. The Vedic College here known as *Ottanmar Madam* was founded and richly endowed by the Zamorins and Hindu theology was extensively taught to the Nambuthiri youths It was run under the supervision of the Tirunavai *Vadhyar*, the Zamorin's hereditary family teacher, and imparted free instruction in such subjects as the *Vedas*, the *Upanishads*, *Meemamsa*, *Vyakarana* etc. It was a common custom in the past for great literary men and poets to assemble before the temple attached to this institution and conduct literary and scientific discussions. The Tirunavai College engaged itself in a healthy competition with its sister institution at Trichur. "At these institutions the pupils are fed and lodged free of cost, and given oral instruction in the *Vedas*, *Sastras*, etc. The method of study pursued is such that the pupils and teachers look more to the sharpening of the power of retentiveness than to the understanding of the subjects studied. Competitive examinations are occasionally held between the pupils of the two institutions, which are feats of intellectual gymnastics, serving more to test the memory of the pupils than their knowledge of the subject. They are made to repeat at random select

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1. Details can be had from Chapter II.

portions from the *Vedas* which they have to do from beginning to end or *vice versa,* the candidates being in the meanwhile unmercifully badgered and interrupted by a batch of young men who take a special delight in thwarting the endeavours of the candidates to go through the passages correctly. Those who are able to withstand this badgering, and succeed in repeating with exactitute the portions assigned to them are held in high estimation.[1]"

In early days the *Ezhuthupallies* under the *Ezhuthachan* or the village schoolmaster afforded ample facilities to the pupils to acquire elementary education. Pupils were first taught to write in sand the letters of the alphabet. They were then made to write short sentences on *ola* (palm leaf) and commit to memory short verses of a devotional character. Simple lessons in Arithmetic were also taught. Some of the pupils from the rich families were taught different sciences such as astronomy and astrology. After undergoing their primary education in the *Ezhuthupallies* the children were sent to the *Kalaries* for being trained in gymnastics and the use of arms or were sent to study Sanskrit in Vedic Schools under well-trained teachers.

Beginnings of Western Education and Pioneer work done in the District.

The beginnings of Western Education in the District may be traced back to the first half of the 19th century. In 1848 the Basel Evangelical Mission started a Primary School at Kallayi. In 1858 this was transferred to a more spacious building at Calicut. It was upgraded to a Middle School in 1872 and a High School after six years. In 1877 a School for the young Rajas was started at Calicut. This was later thrown open to all Caste Hindu boys. In 1879 it was affiliated to the University of Madras as a Second Grade College. With this College education in the District received a fillip. Till 1904 the Zamorin or one of the members of his family acted as the Manager of the College; but at the beginning of 1904 the management of the College was vested in a Board of Control. In 1907 the High School run by the Basel Evangelical Mission at Kozhikode was also affiliated to the University of Madras as a Second Grade College.

1. *History of Kerala* (Vol. III) -K.P. Padmanabha Menon, page. 71.

Since 1915 Secondary education recorded appreciable progress. The increased grants given by the Government since 1919 for elementary education had been mainly responsible for a great increase in the number of schools and scholars. The Secondary Schools doubled themselves in the area during the period and the erstwhile Malabar District held a high rank among the Districts of the Madras Presidency in the matter of Secondary education.

Growth of Literacy.

According to the figures compiled from the 1951 Census only 29.13 per cent of the population of the Kozhikode District were literate. The percentage of literate males to the total male population was 41.14 while that of literate females to the total female population was 17.31. It may be noted that in 1951 the Kozhikode District held the 8th rank among the Districts of Kerala in point of literacy. The provisional figures of the 1961 Census show that the District still holds this low rank among the Districts of the State in point of literacy. However, the proportion of literates to the total population has recorded appreciable increase. 40% of the total population can now read and write with understanding. The particulars of male and female literacy in the District as per the provisional figures of 1961 Census are given below.

Particulars of Male & Female Literacy
(1961 Census—Provisional)

Total Literates ..	1,036,805
Proportion of Literates to the total population ..	40%
Male Literates ..	645,573
Proportion of Male Literates to the total male population ..	49.64
Female Literates ..	391,232
Proportion of Female Literates to the Female population ..	29.66

The following table gives the provisional figures of rural—urban male and female literacy as per the 1961 Census.

	Rural	Urban
	(In thousands)	
Males	516.2	129.4
Females	304.5	86.7
Total	820.7	216.1

The following table gives the provisional Taluk-wise figures of male and female literacy in the District (1961 Census)

Name of Taluk.	Literates		
	Total.	Males.	Females.
	(In thousands.)		
Kozhikode	328.2	199.4	128.8
Tirur	182.9	114.0	68.9
Ernad	185.1	114.4	70.7
Quilandi	155.0	100.0	55.0
Badagara	134.1	86.7	47.4
S. Wynad	51.5	31.1	20.4

The tables given above show that there has been a steady increase in the literate population of Kozhikode. In 1951 the District was part of the erstwhile Malabar District which had only 30.9 per cent of its population as literates.[1] Compared to Travancore-Cochin the Malabar District was educationally backward. A striking feature of the decade 1951 to 1961 is that there has been a remarkable growth in the number of educational institutions in this District and a consequent improvement in educational facilities. This accounts for the growth of literacy during the decade 1951 to 1961.

It may also be noted that the Kozhikode Taluk has the highest number of literates among the Taluks of the District. The Taluks of Ernad, and Tirur where the Mappilas out-number Hindus are the most illiterate Taluks as education has yet to make any significant advance among the Mappilas of this area. The South Wynad Taluk which has been for decades a backward tract and has a considerable element of Hill Tribes in the population is also comparatively illiterate. The Taluks of Badagara and Quilandi have higher percentages of literacy than the three comparatively illiterate Taluks mentioned above. However, they are yet to attain the level of literacy reached by Kozhikode Taluk.

1. It may however be noted that in spite of this low percentage of literacy, Malabar still occupied a high rank among the Districts in the Madras Presidency in point of literacy among its people of both sexes. It had 41.4 per cent of literacy among males and 21 per cent literacy among females and was only second to the Madras City in rank.

Educational Standards

No separate data regarding the educational standards for the Kozhikode District as a whole are available. However the *Malabar District Census Hand Book 1951* gives the following information about educational standards in Calicut City.

	Persons	Males	Females
Literate [1] ..	56,794	40,927	15,867
Middle School ..	2,039	1,249	790
Matriculate, S. S. L. C. or Higher Secondary ..	3,203	2,750	453
Intermediate in Arts or Science ..	667	559	108
Degrees or Diplomas.			
Graduate in Arts or Science ..	421	383	38
Post-Graduate in Arts and Science ..	201	74	127
Teaching ..	101	95	6
Engineering ..	40	40	..
Agriculture ..	2	2	..
Veterinary ..	1	1	..
Commerce ..	23	23	..
Legal ..	170	169	1
Medical ..	54	45	9
Others ..	32	27	5
Total ..	63,748	46,344	17,404

Spread of education among women

The education of women has recorded appreciable progress in the District in recent times. In the beginning secondary education for girls was largely in the hands of Christian missionaries. The Basel Mission School at Calicut had the largest number of girl students. There was also a Girls' Secondary School at Calicut run by the Roman Catholics. The Calicut Municipality had a Girls' Middle School at Calicut and the Malabar District Board was running a Girls' Middle

1. According to the provisional Census figures of 1961 out of a total population of 1.9 lakhs in Calicut City (Male 1.0 and Female 0.9) 1 lakh of persons (0.6 males and 0.4 females) are literate.

School at Badagara. Gradually the education of women engaged the special attention of the Government and the number of Girls' Schools increased along with a considerable increase in the number of girls attending classes. The collegiate education of women also made good progress with the establishment of the Providence Women's College at Calicut in 1952 by the Sisters of the Apostalic Carmel, Mangalore. A Government Rural College for Women was started in Calicut in 1949-50, but it was closed after one year.

In 1960-61 the most important educational institution intended for the higher education of women was the Providence Women's College at Calicut. Apart from this, six schools of different types in the District were devoted solely to women's education and 6383 girl students were attending them.

Spread of Education among the Backward Classes and Tribes

Before the beginning of the 20th century very few steps were taken for the education of the Backward Classes and Tribes in the District. In 1903-04 only less than 2½% of the Harijans of school going age were undergoing instruction. The almost insurmountable ignorance of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and the reluctance of the higher castes to allow them to elevate themselves out of their position of serfs were the two great obstacles in the path of the progress of the education of Harijans.

However special attention was given to the education of Mappilas even in the 19th century. A plan was devised in 1872 for improving the education imparted to Mappila children in the small schools attached to almost every mosque. Special instructions were given to the *Mullahs* to teach the children the elementary lessons in the regional language along with religious training. Government gave grants to the *Mullahs* in order to pay salaries to the teachers. However, as this was not found to be a successful experiment, in 1894 aided schools were separated as far as possible from the mosques and freed from the influence of the *Mullahs*.

In 1931 the Labour Department of the Madras Government maintained a number of elementary schools for the Scheduled Castes. It also maintained a small boarding establishment for the benefit of the poor students of these classes. Eventually a separate Department of the Government at the State

level under the name of Harijan Welfare Department was specially set up for the amelioration of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Communities. The ameliorative measures undertaken by the Department included the maintenance of Schools both elementary and secondary, provision of scholarships, boarding grants, giving grants for the purchase of books and clothing, payment of examination fees, grant of stipends for the training of teachers, maintenance of free hostels at important centres and granting of financial assistance to private bodies for the maintenance of hostels, schools etc. for the benefit of all eligible communities.

Government took more active interest in the education of the backward classes since 1947. The Scholarships continued to be granted by the Harijan Welfare Department and fee compensation to managements by the Education Department. The Education Department adopted the policy of enabling the Harijan children to mix freely with pupils of other communities and to discourage the opening of separate Harijan hostels. Government issued orders providing that some seats should be reserved for Harijans in Schools and that with effect from the School year 1947-48 10% of the seats in all Secondary and Training Schools and Government Arts and Training Colleges should be reserved for the Harijans. In 1956 the Welfare activities in the District were brought under control of the Harijan Welfare Department of Kerala State. Schools of Social Education, Night Schools, Libraries etc. were started throughout the District for the benefit of Harijans. Special Tribal Schools were also conducted for the benefit of tribal children in remote hilly areas.

In 1960-61 there were 24 Harijan Welfare Schools in the District and they were located at Ayinikad, Chathamangalam, Chilliyode, Feroke, Irimbiliyam, Kakkavayal, Kolagappara, Kavunthara, Kolakkad, Munderi, Nanminda, Paimbra, Palath, Peruvallur, Purathur, Thazhecode, Thurayur, Trikkulam, Vengappally, Velliyode, Valayam, Perambra, Changaroth and Nediyiruppu. At Chingeri and Kavilampara there are two Craft Centres for Scheduled tribes. An Industrial Training Centre has been established at Puduppadi for the Scheduled Castes. Harijan Welfare Hostels for boys have been opened at Calicut, Badagara, Nilambur, Malappuram, Wandur, Parappanangadi, Quilandi, Tirur, Tamarasseri, Perambra and Sultan's Battery. There are two Harijan Welfare Hostels for girls at Calicut and Manjeri. In addition to these there are

ten subsidised Hostels in the District for the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. There are eight Residential Basic Tribal Schools located at Kalpetta, Vayittiri, Chedleth, Kaniyambetta, Sultan's Battery, Nilambur, Muthanga and Edappara.

In 1959-60 there were a total number of 31080 students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes studying in the various educational institutions in the District and a total amount of Rs. 3,42,214 was spent for their benefit. The details regarding the number of Scheduled Castes and Tribes students in different categories and the amount spent for them in the year 1959-60 are given below.

Institutions	*No. of students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes*	*Amount spent* Rs.
Colleges for General Education	1179	131155
Professional Colleges	124	8882
Technical Institutions	31	6125
Vocational Institutions	34	5710
Primary and Secondary Schools	29712	190342

GENERAL EDUCATION

Organisation of the Education Department

The Kozhikode District has been divided into three Educational Districts with headquarters at Kozhikode, Badagara and Malappuram. Each District is under the control of a District Educational Officer who is in charge of all the High Schools and Training Schools in the District. The Kozhikode Educational District is comprised of the Taluks of Kozhikode, and South Wynad, the Badagara Educational District of the Taluks of Quilandi and Badagara, and the Malappuram Educational District of the Taluks of Ernad and Tirur. The Educational Districts are again sub-divided into sub-districts each of which is under an Assistant Educational Officer. There are altogether 19 sub-Districts in the District of which 6 are under the Kozhikode District Educational Officer, 6 under the Badagara

District Educational Officer, and 7 under the Malappuram District Educational Officer. The Sub-Districts of Kozhikode, Chevayur, Tamarasseri, Kunnamangalam, Vayittiri and Sultan's Battery come under the Kozhikode Educational District; those of Badagara, Thodannur, Nadapuram, Quilandi, Perambra and Balussery under the Badagara Educational District, and those of Kuttipuram, Tirur, Parappanangadi, Malappuram, Manjeri, Nilambur and Kondotti are under the Malappuram Educational District[1]. All the Primary Schools are under the control of the Assistant Educational Officers.

Nursery Schools

As only children above the age of 5½ years are admitted to the Primary Schools, pre-primary classes of the Nursery School type are conducted in certain parts of the District for the sake of the children below the age of 5½ years. In 1961-62 there were four Nursery Schools of which three were under the control of the District Educational Officer, Kozhikode and one was under the control of the District Educational Officer, Malappuram. These Schools are (1) Dr. Robinson's Mt. George Mission Hospital Nursery School, Tamarasseri, (2) The Model Nursery School run by the Education Department and located in the Kottaram Buildings, Nadakkavu, (3) Poor Homes Nursery School, West-Hill and (4) Seva Mandir Sisu Vihar located at Ramanattukara in the Danagram colony in Azhinilam village. In these Schools the children are given an informal education before they begin to learn, to read and study arithmetic. The sanctioned strength of each of these Schools is 40. In each school there is one teacher and an Aya-cum-attender for a normal unit of 30 to 35 children. Only women with special training in child education are appointed as teachers. Provision has also been made for in-door and out-door games for the children. The curriculam of studies includes action songs, stories, hand work, drawing, games etc. The working hours of the Schools are from 10 A.M. to 12-30 P.M. and from 2 P.M. to 4 P.M. The system of Nursery School education is an attempt to discover by study and experiment the actual needs of the children with reference to their natural interests and abilities.

1. The three-fold division of the District for purposes of educational administration came into effect only in September 1961. Till then the Badagara Educational District formed part of the Kozhikode Educational District.

Primary Schools

As in the case of the other Districts of Kerala, the Primary Schools in the Kozhikode District are under the control of the Assistant Educational Officers who are immediately below their respective District Educational Officers. Primary Education extends to a period of seven years. The first seven Standards are collectively known as the Primary Grade and are divided into two sections viz. (1) Lower Primary and Junior Basic which includes any or all of the Standards I to IV and (2) Upper Primary and Senior Basic containing any or all of the Standards V to VII and without the Lower Primary Section. At the Primary stage the education is imparted free.

In the School year 1958-59 the total number of the Primary Schools in the Kozhikode Revenue District was 1721 of which 1313 were Lower Primary Schools and 408 were Upper Primary Schools. Of the total 1313 Lower Primary Schools 495 were run by the Government and 818 were run by private agencies. Again of the total 408 Upper Primary Schools, 92 were Governmental Schools and 316 were Aided Private Schools. The number of Primary Schools in each Taluk is given in the Table on page 663.

Basic Schools

The policy accepted by the Government at present is that Primary Education should be of the basic pattern. In 1958-59 basic education was introduced in some of the Primary Schools according to the report of the Basic Education Assessment Committee. More importance was given to the practice of simple useful crafts. The school children are expected to familiarise with tools in order to get a technical background even from the very beginning of the primary stage and to increase progressively the activities in the higher stages so that they will be given a rounding off in a particular craft at the end of the primary course.

In the School year 1958-59 there were 178 Basic Schools in the Kozhikode District of which 141 were Junior Basic Schools and 37 were Senior Basic Schools. Of these 44 are Governmental Schools and 97 are run by private agencies. Again of the total 37 Senior Basic Schools 8 are run by the Government and 29 are private schools. The table on page 664 shows the number of Basic Schools in the various Sub-districts along with the number of pupils and teachers in them.

Primary Schools in the Kozhikode District—(1958-59)

Name of Taluk	Type of School	No. of Schools		No. of pupils		No. of Teachers	
		Govt.	Private	Boys	Girls	Men	Women
Kozhikode	Lower Primary	100	168	15844	27859	1203	609
	Upper Primary	19	68	17871	12320	799	514
Badagara	Lower Primary	22	215	20734	16214	1078	164
	Upper Primary	2	43	6375	4051	465	102
Quilandi	Lower Primary	68	161	24986	18903	1065	337
	Upper Primary	19	57	11882	7966	624	142
South Wynad	Lower Primary	50	21	5974	4006	226	84
	Upper Primary	6	18	3334	2003	141	31
Manjeri	Lower Primary	158	104	25165	20027	901	192
	Upper Primary	18	101	4241	2577	270	99
Tirur	Lower Primary	97	149	22048	17774	840	272
	Upper Primary	18	29	5517	3312	303	110
Total	Lower Primary	495	818	134756	104783	5313	1658
	Upper Primary	92	316	49220	32229	2602	998

Basic Schools in the Kozhikode District—(1958-59)

Name of Sub-District and Taluk		No. of Schools		No. of pupils		No. of Teachers	
		Govt.	Private	Boys	Girls	Men	Women
1. Kondotti (Ernad)	J. B. S.	10	26	4446	2742	159	16
	S. B. S.	..	6	353	150	64	11
2. Malappuram (Ernad)	J. B. S.	9	16	2209	1779	124	19
	S. B. S.	1	3	735	683	28	28
3. Parappanangadi (Ernad)	J. B. S.	11	15	1520	1005	122	38
	S. B. S.	4	7	440	249	108	16
4. Sultan's Battery (South Wynad)	J. B. S.	3	..	62	15	3	..
	S. B. S.	..	..	..	..	..	..
5. Tirur (Tirur)	J. B. S.	5	16	1896	1560	78	36
	S. B. S.	3	5	1630	1022	60	38
6. Badagara (Badagara)	J. B. S.	3	22	2189	1625	104	36
	S. B. S.	..	6	888	705	37	34
7. Thodannur (Badagara)	J. B. S.	3	2	374	310	19	4
	S. B. S.	..	2	430	301	20	13
Total	J. B. S.	44	97	12696	9036	609	149
	S. B. S.	8	29	4476	3110	317	140

Secondary Schools

Till a few decades ago High School education was solely in the hands of local bodies and private agencies. The Schools started as a result of private enterprise were in receipt of Government aid. Most of them were originally Middle Schools but they were raised to High Schools to meet the demand for increased facilities for High School education in the region. The Madras Government in 1937 reorganised the system of Secondary Education by extending the High School stage by one year, bifurcating the High School course after Form IV, and introducing various forms of practical training in the bifurcated course. In 1940 the Government introduced the system of bifurcation of secondary school course at the end of Form IV into a Pre-University side and a vocational side. In 1948-49 the system was again reorganised. The main aspects of the reorganisation were (1) the introduction of crafts as basic activities in the Middle School stages, (2) hobbies and practical activities in the High School classes, (3) introduction of Citizenship Training for pupils as well as for teachers, (4) abolition of optionals in High School classes etc.

Secondary education is now imparted through Secondary or High Schools. Standards VIII, IX, and X are collectively known as Secondary Grade and Standards IX, X and XI are collectively known as Higher Secondary Grade. The Secondary Schools are run by Government as well as by private agencies. In the School year 1960-61 there were 83 Secondary Schools in the Kozhikode District of which 54 were under the control of the District Educational Officer, Kozhikode and 29 were under the control of the District Educational Officer, Malappuram.[1] Further of the total 83 Secondary Schools 37 were Governmental schools and 46 were run by the private agencies. Higher Secondary Schools have not yet been set up.

The following table gives Taluk-wise figures of the number of High Schools and the number of students and teachers in them in 1960-61.

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1. The figures pertain to the period before the formation of the Badagara Educational District.

HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KOZHIKODE DISTRICT (1960-61)

Name of Taluk		*No. of High Schools*	*No. of Students*	*No. of Teachers*
Kozhikode	..	27	20277	763
Badagara	..	12	5792	233
Quilandi	..	10	6745	246
South Wynad	.	5	2076	77
Ernad	..	13	6688	296
Tirur	..	16	6987	317
Total	..	83	48565	1932

Training Schools

Side by side with the growth of Secondary education, Training Schools were also set up in certain parts of the District. In 1931 there were four Training Schools in the District, two at Calicut, one at Malappuram, and the other at Badagara. The School for men teachers at Calicut, the direct descendant of the Provincial School founded here in 1854, was used to train teachers for the Secondary Schools. The Malappuram Training School was specially intended to train Mappila teachers. The Training School for Women, maintained by the Government at Calicut was intended for the elementary higher and lower grade teachers.

At present all the Training Schools in the District have been converted into Basic Training Schools and they are under the control of the District Educational Officers. The training course extends to a period of two years. The minimum qualification for admission in the Training School is a pass in the S.S.L.C. Examination. Those who successfully complete the course are awarded the Trained Teacher's Certificate. The selection of candidates for the Training Schools is made by a Selection Board constituted by the Public Service Commission for the purpose. However, the selection of candidates from among the untrained teachers employed in departmental or private educational institutions for admission to the Training Schools is made by the authorities of the Education Department.

In 1960-61 there were 7 Basic Training Schools in the District. They are (1) Government Training School for Men, Kozhikode, (2) Government Training School for Women, Kozhikode, (3) St. Vincents' Colony Training School for Women, Kozhikode, (4) Government Basic Training School, Badagara,

(5) Government Basic Training School, Malappuram, (6) Government Basic Training School for Women, Tirur and (7) Sevamandir Basic Training School, Ramanattukara. Of these five are Government Schools and two private Schools. There were 45 teachers and 460 students in these Schools.

COLLEGES FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

In the Kozhikode District there are six Colleges meant for general education. Of these one is a Women's College, viz., the Providence College, Kozhikode. The other Colleges are the Guruvayurappan College, Kozhikode, Malabar Christian College, Calicut, Government College, Madappally, Farook College, Feroke and St. Joseph's College, Devagiri, Kozhikode. Of these all except the St. Joseph's College, Devagiri, are co-educational institutions. The Government College at Madappally is run by the Government while the others are run by private agencies. All the Colleges are affiliated to the University of Kerala. Brief accounts of these institutions are given below.

Guruvayurappan College, Kozhikode

The Guruvayurappan College situated in Pookkunnu, about four miles from Calicut city, is the oldest College in the District. The nucleus of the College was formed in 1877 with the opening of an English School by H. H. Manavikrama Maharajā, the Zamorin Raja of Calicut. The School was named *'Kerala Vidyasala'* in 1878 and was affiliated to the University of Madras as a Second Grade College during the next year. In 1900 it was renamed the Zamorin's College. In 1952 Degree Courses in Economics and Mathematics were started in the College as a result of the encouragement given by the Guruvayur Devaswom through the grant of Rs. 5 lakhs. The College was given its present name in grateful recognition of the munificent gift from the Guruvayur Devaswom. In 1957 it was affiliated to the University of Kerala. The administration of the College is vested in a Board consisting of 11 members including the Principal appointed by the Zamorin Raja in his capacity as the Patron of the College. During the academic year 1960-61 there were 597 students on the rolls of the College while the strength of the teaching staff was 41. The College offers instruction for the University Previous, B.A., B.Sc., B.Com., and M.A. Degree courses. The general and sectional libraries in the College contain more than 13,000 volumes of books.

Besides the College subscribes to all the important magazines and journals in different spheres of academic studies. The College Hostel consisting of 3 blocks of buildings accommodates 196 students.

The Malabar Christian College, Calicut

The Malabar Christian College which is located at Calicut has its origin from a Primary School opened by the Basel Evangelical Mission at Kallayi in 1848. In 1858 this Primary School was shifted to a more spacious building at Calicut. In 1872 it was raised as a Middle School and in 1878 as a High School. In 1907 it was raised as a Second Grade College affiliated to the University of Madras. In 1956 the College was affiliated to the University of Kerala and in the next year it was raised to the standard of a full-fledged First Grade College. The College is managed by the Malabar and South Canara Christian Education Society. Under the Managing Body there is a College Council for the detailed administration of the College. During the academic year 1960-61 there were 689 students on the rolls of the College and 36 members on the teaching staff. The College offers instruction for the Pre-University, B.A. and B.Sc., Degree Courses. Attached to the College there is a good Hostel in which 65 students can be accommodated. The library of the College contains about 8,500 books.

The St. Joseph's College, Devagiri, Kozhikode

The St. Joseph's College, located on the breezy 'Hill of God' at Devagiri which is one mile away from Calicut town, was started on the 2nd July 1956. It is run by the St. Joseph's Province of the Syrian Carmelite Congregation. In 1958 the College was affiliated to the University of Kerala. Its administration is vested in a Managing Board consisting of 8 members including the Principal. Besides there is a College Council to help the Principal in the internal administration of the College. In the academic year 1960-61 the College had a total strength of 653 students on its rolls while the teaching staff consisted of 45 members. The college offers instruction for the University Previous course, and B.A., B.Sc., M.A. and M. Sc. Degree courses. Attached to the College there is a well-equipped library containing 9287 volumes. Another notable feature of this college is that it runs three Hostels and in the year 1960-61 there were 402 students residing in them.

Farook College, Feroke

Farook College, which is located in Feroke, a place about 6 miles to the south of Calicut town was started on the 12th of August 1948. It is managed by the Farook College Managing Committee which is elected annually by the Rauzathul Uloom Association. In the academic year 1960-61 there were 664 students on the rolls of the College and 46 members on the teaching staff. The college offers instruction for the University Previous, B.A., B.Sc., B.Com., and M.Sc. Degree courses. The College maintains a good library containing more than 7025 volumes. An important feature of the college is that it runs six hostels providing accommodation for 354 students.

The Providence Women's College, Kozhikode

The Providence Women's College, located at the Carmel Hill of Kozhikode, was established in July 1952. It is the first college for women to be started in the erstwhile Malabar area and is run by the sisters of the Apostalic Carmel, Mangalore. In the academic year 1960-61 the total number of students on the rolls of the college was 338 while there were 20 members on the teaching staff. The institution offers instruction for the University Previous, B. A. and B. Sc. Degree courses. It contains a good library containing 1074 books. There is also a Hostel which can accommodate 234 students.

The Government College, Madappally

The Government College Madappally which was started on the 16th June 1958 is located in Madappally, a place two miles away from Badagara town. It is the only Arts and Science College run by the Government in the District. In the academic year 1960-61 there were 317 students on the rolls of the College while there were 18 members on the teaching staff. The institution offers instruction for the Pre-University, B.A. and B.Sc. Degree courses. Attached to the college there is a good library containing 3752 books.

University Centre at Calicut

A University Centre has been formally opened at Calicut on the 30th January 1961. With this the long felt need for extending the activities of the Kerala University to the Malabar area has been fulfilled. The purpose of establishing the

Centre is to promote active participation by the Kerala University in the creation of facilities for post-graduate training and research in both Science and Humanities at Calicut where the existence of a number of colleges renders possible a joint effort by the University and affiliated colleges to develop the necessary Departments with their associated laboratory, library and other requirements. The general pattern of development that is envisaged for the University Centre includes the following. (1) two or three Post-graduate Departments with adequate facilities, which are administered by the University, (2) a University Library, in charge of an Assistant Librarian, which will form a branch of the main University Library at Trivandrum; (3) a University Students' Hostel to serve the needs of University students, who may belong to any of the colleges in this District, (4) a non-resident students' centre with a good auditorium and facilities for cultural and recreational activities; and (5) a branch office of the University under the charge of an academic person to assist in the initiation and co-ordination of the activities at this centre. Necessary steps are being taken for the starting of Post-graduate courses in Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, and Indian History and Culture with special emphasis on Kerala History and Culture in the University Centre at Calicut during the Third Five Year Plan period.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

The most important Industrial Schools in the District are the Kerala Polytechnic, Calicut, the Government Industrial School, Calicut, the Junior Technical School, Manjeri, the Coir School, Beypore, the Fisheries Technical High School, Madappally and the Fishermen Training Centre, Beypore. The details regarding these institutions are given below.

Government Polytechnic, Calicut

The Government Polytechnic, located at West Hill, Calicut, was started in 1946 by the Madras State under the post-war Development Schemes to meet the increased demand for technicians. It was then housed in the old Government School at Vellayil and was shifted from there to the present building in 1952. It is under the control of the Director of Technical Education. The institution offers instruction for the full-time Diploma courses in Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering,

Mechanical Engineering and Chemical Engineering, and part-time Diploma courses in Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering and Mechanical Engineering. Full-time Diploma courses are of 3 years' duration followed by one year's practical training in a recognised concern and part-time Diploma courses are of 4 years duration. In 1960-61 the Polytechnic had 860 students on its rolls and 33 members on its teaching staff. A well equipped library with books worth Rs. 21,000 has been provided. The Hostel attached to the institution provides accommodation for hundred students. Its laboratories provide facilities for testing industrial products like clays, tiles, stoneware pipes, starch and food products.

Government Industrial School, Calicut

The Government Industrial School, Calicut, was established in 1929 and it is located at West Hill. It is under the control of the Director of Industries and Commerce, Kerala. Here training is given in General Mechanics, Cabinet making, Light Metal Casting, Fitting and Erecting, Toy making, Electric and Gas Welding and Electric wiring. Training in General Mechanics lasts for five years, in Cabinet making for three years, and in every other subject for two years. Twenty students are admitted in each course annually.

Coir School, Beypore

The Coir School is located at Beypore about seven miles to the South-west of Calicut town, and it is the only institution of its kind in Kerala. It was started in 1938 with twelve trainees under the Department of Industries and Commerce during the time of the first Congress Ministry in Madras. In the first year of its establishment the School was attached to the Kerala Soap Institute at Calicut, but in 1939 it was shifted to the present building at Beypore. In 1944 it was reorganised and was put under the charge of an independent officer with a view to popularising the spinning of coir yarn in *charkas* and manufacture of coir products in Malabar area. Since then the institution had been imparting technical training in the various processes of manufacturing coir and coir products. It is under the administrative control of a Superintendent who is responsible to the Director of Industries and Commerce, Kerala State. In 1960-61 there were 78 students on its rolls and ten members on its teaching staff. The School offers

instruction in coir crafts and the course is for two years. All the students admitted here are given a monthly stipend of Rs. 20.

Junior Technical School, Manjeri

In 1960-61 the Government opened a Junior Technical School at Manjeri. It is intended to divert pupils from purely general education to productive occupation of a technical nature. The duration of the course is three years and the curriculum consists of Humanities, General Science, Engineering subjects and different trades. The medium of instruction is in the beginning Malayalam but in the final year of the course it will be English. The administrative control of the School is vested in the Director of Technical Education, Kerala State.

Fisheries Technical High School, Madappally

There is a Government Fisheries Technical High School at Madappally which is mainly intended for the benefit of the fishermen community. It was established in 1946 with a strength of 392 students by the Department of Fisheries in Madras State and is now under the administrative control of the Director of Fisheries, Kerala State.

Fishermen Training Centre, Beypore

There is a Fishermen Training Centre at Beypore. The trainees in this centre are given practical training in modern methods of mechanised fishing such as trawling and trill netting, drift netting and long lining operations. Admission is given only to the young men of fishermen communities between the ages of 18 and 35 and having a continuous practical experience of sea fishing for not less than five years. The selected candidates are given six months training. Theoretical and practical classes on working and maintenance of marine engines are conducted for their benefit. Besides, practical lessons in fabrication of nets, working and maintenance of marine diesel engine, driving etc. are also conducted. The other subjects included in the curriculum of studies, are (1) Machine drawing and how the various parts can be sketched and dimensioned, (2) the working and use of various nautical instruments used in ships such as Compass, Barometer, Chronometer, Sextant and Sounding lad, (3) Boat building and (4) Elements of Oceanography.

Tailoring and Garment Making Training Centre, Badagara

A Tailoring and Garment-making Training Centre was started at Badagara in 1958-59. The number of trainees in this Centre is 16. Only girls are admitted. The course is of one year's duration.

Training-cum-Production Centre for Papier-Mache, Calicut

The Production-cum Training Centre for Papier-mache located in the premises of the District Industries Office, Kozhikode was started in 1960. It provides a one and half year's course for 30 trainees, both boys and girls. A stipend of Rs. 25 per mensem is given to all the trainees.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL COLLEGES.

There are four Colleges in the Kozhikode District for professional and technical education. They are the Medical College, Kozhikode, the Regional Engineering College, Kozhikode, Government Training College, Calicut and the Physical Education College, Calicut. Brief accounts of these institutions are given below.

Medical College, Kozhikode

The Medical College, Kozhikode, the second of its kind to be set up in Kerala, is situated at Chevayur, a place 4½ miles away from the centre of Calicut city. Its formal inauguration took place on the 5th August 1957. The Kerala Government have constituted a Council of Administration for the College consisting of the Secretary to the Government (Health) as Chairman, the Director of Health Services, Kerala State and certain selected Professors as members, and the Principal of the College as the Convener. It is an Executive Council in character and all decisions on matters within the jurisdiction and powers of the Council shall be binding. It has jurisdiction over the management of the College and the Hospitals within the campus. The Principal is the Chief Executive Officer of the Council of Administration. In 1960-61 the Medical College had 526 students on its rolls and 117 members on its teaching staff. Attached to it there is a well equipped library and a museum. The library contains a collection of about 3000 volumes. The College offers instruction for the M.B., B.S. Degree course. The curriculum of studies for the course extends over a period of four and a half years with twelve months of

satisfactory post-examination internship. There are three Hostels attached to the College and they provide accommodation for 465 students. Arrangements have also been made for providing 500 beds in the teaching Hospital attached to the College.

Government Training College, Calicut

The Government Training College, Calicut, was first started at Palghat in June, 1950 in the premises of the Government Victoria College. On 15th May 1951 it was shifted to the present building at Calicut. Until 1957 the college was affiliated to the University of Madras for its reorganised B.T. Course. In July 1957 it was affiliated to the University of Kerala and at present it offers instruction for the B. Ed. Degree Course. In 1960-61 it had 150 students on its rolls and 11 members on the teaching staff. The College maintains a good library consisting of 4125 volumes. Two Hostels are provided for the accommodation of 50 students.

Government College of Physical Education, Calicut

The Government College of Physical Education was started in October 1957. It is located in the premises of the Zamorin's College High School; but arrangements are being made to shift it to the old Collector's Bungalow at West Hill. In 1960-61 it had 79 students and 6 teachers. It offers instruction for the Certificate and Diploma courses in Physical Education. The College Library has a collection of 253 volumes

Regional Engineering College, Calicut

A Regional Engineering College was started at Calicut at the beginning of 1961-62. This is the first of its kind in Kerala, the third in South India, and the ninth in India as a whole. Provision has been made for the admission of 250 students to this College in 1960-61. 50% of the total seats are filled up from among the applicants from Kerala State; 30% is allotted to other States in the Southern Zone, viz. Madras, Mysore and the Andhra Pradesh, and the remaining 20% are available to students from all other parts of India. 25% of the total number of seats are reserved for the Scheduled castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward classes.

The College is working as an autonomous body under the control of the Government. Its administration is vested in a Board of Governors consisting of veteran educationists and

industrialists and presided over by the Chief Minister of Kerala. It is temporarily located in the premises of Kerala Polytechnic. However, permanent buildings for it are being constructed at Chathamangalam, a place 15 miles away from the Calicut city, on a plot of 275 acres. The total cost of construction would be one crore of Rupees. The Central Government would meet the entire non-recurring expenditure on buildings and equipments.

Ayurveda College (Patasala), Kottakkal

There is an Ayurveda College at Kottakkal attached to the Kottakkal Arya Vaidya Sala. It was started in 1917 in order to meet the long felt need for providing facilities for the study of Ayurveda. Prior to 1956 the students who passed out from this College after completing the four years' course were given the certificate of *"Arya Vaidyan"*. However, since 1959 the syllabus and courses of study were revised and a unified system of tuition for the Diploma course in Ayurveda and Public Examination conducted by the Government of Kerala was adopted. In 1961-62 there were 7 teachers and 104 students in the College.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

There are two Sanskrit Secondary Schools in this District viz. Government V.V. Advanced Sanskrit School, Badagara and the Sanskrit High School, Vattoli. In the V.V. Sanskrit High School 27 periods of instruction have been allotted per week for the teaching of Sanskrit while in the Sanskrit High School at Vattoli 9 periods have been allotted per week for the same.

There are also two Arabic Schools which come under the jurisdiction of the District Educational Officer, Malappuram. They are the Sullamusalam Oriental School at Ariyakkod and the Oriental Secondary School at Tirurangadi. In 1960-61 there were altogether 507 students and 34 teachers in them. Arabic is being taught as the main language.

Madeenathul Uloom Arabic College, Pulikkal

An important institution for oriental education in the District is Madeenathul Uloom Arabic College located at Pulikkal, a place 14 miles to the south of Calicut city. It was started on the 11th July, 1947 and was affiliated to the Madras University. In 1957 it got itself affiliated to the University of

Kerala. It is run by the Jamiathul Ulema, a registered association of the Muslims of Kerala. In 1960-61 there were 154 students on its rolls while the number of members on the teaching staff was 12. The College offers instruction for the 'Afzalul Ulema' course and the Entrance Test for the same. Attached to the College there is a Hostel run by the College Managing Committee. All the students admitted in the College are given free tuition, free boarding and free lodging.

Rouzathul Uloom Arabic College, Feroke

The Rouzathul Uloom Arabic College is situated on a lovely hillock, three miles to the east of Feroke Railway Station. First established in 1942 at Anakkayam, a village near Manjeri town, it was shifted to Manjeri in 1944. In 1946 it was affiliated to the Madras University. In 1948 the College was shifted from Manjeri to Feroke. It is administered by a managing committee selected by the Rouzathul Uloom Association. It offers instruction for the following courses: (1) Arabic Entrance to Afzalul Ulema, (2) Afzalul Ulema Preliminary Junior, (3) Afzalul Ulema Preliminary Senior, (4) Afzalul Ulema Final Junior and (5) Afzalul Ulema Final Senior. In 1960-61 it had 77 students and 8 teachers. Tuition is imparted free to all the students. Attached to the College there is an Hostel which provides free boarding, free lodging, and free medical aid to its inmates.

Sulla Mussalam Arabic College, Ariyakkod

The Sulla Mussalam Arabic College is situated in the Ariyakkod village of Ernad Taluk, about 27 miles from Calicut. Established in 1944 as an Arabic *Madrasa* it was upgraded in 1955 to a College affiliated to the University of Madras. In 1956 it was affiliated to the University of Kerala. It is run by the Jamiyyathul Mujahideem, Ariyakkod. In 1960-61 it had 68 students and seven teachers. It offers instruction for the Afzalul Ulema course (4 years Title course), Arabic Entrance Examination and Preparatory Classes to the University Course. Attached to the College there is a Hostel for male students and the inmates are given free boarding and free lodging.

Adult Literacy, Social Education and Measures for the Diffusion of Culture among the Masses

The Government of Madras took interest in the field of adult literacy and social education in the Malabar area since 1930 when some Night Schools for boys and adults were established. Voluntary Social Service Organisations have also been active in the field. The Servants of India Society played a notable part in the activities connected with adult education in Ernad Taluk. The Devadhar Malabar Reconstruction Trust which was started for relief work after the Malabar Rebellion of 1921 also did much useful work in the field. Government gave special encouragement to such voluntary agencies in their activities connected with social education.

With the attainment of Independence a comprehensive scheme of adult education with the object of liquidating the illiteracy of the adults and improving their knowledge and the education already possessed by them, was sanctioned by the Madras Government.[1] The lines on which the scheme was put into effect are indicated below.

(a) Opening of adult literacy schools for spreading literacy among adults.

(b) Opening of rural colleges for giving higher educational training to persons who had already some school education.

(c) Organisation of training courses for the training of the staff required for adult literacy centres.

(d) Organizing training camps for social service workers.

(e) Organizing training camps for citizenship and young workers.

(f) Visual education.

Two types of courses were offered in the adult literacy schools: (1) Courses run for four months to cover the literacy portion and also as much as possible of the rest of the syllabus for the first year. At the end of the course arrangements were made for conducting the literacy tests and granting literacy certificates to deserving adults. (2) Intensive courses during the next two years. The full course was of three years' duration. The aim was to develop in the adult, the

1. Vide Order No. 846, Education, dated 9th April 1948.

ability to read and understand the contents of a daily newspaper. The attempt was also to improve the knowledge and education already possessed by the adults through the education centres, libraries and audio-visual aids. Persons between the ages 13 and 40 were admitted into these schools.

As part of the scheme a Rural College was started at Calicut in 1950-51 which was designed to improve the general and technical knowledge of adults who had a limited education in the past and desired to pursue further studies under conditions suited to their daily occupations in life. But in 1951-52 this College was closed down owing to the discouraging fall in attendance.

Since 1956 the Government of Kerala have taken much interest in the spread of education and culture among the illiterate masses in the District. The activities connected with social education are being developed through the N.E.S. Blocks. The measures for the spread of adult education undertaken by the N.E.S. Blocks are being supervised and technically guided by the Education Department and for this purpose a District Social Education Officer has been appointed in the Kozhikode District. In each N.E.S. Block there are two Social Education Organisers, one a man and the other a woman, and they are given six months' training at the Social Education Organisers Training Centres organised by the Ministry of Community Development. They have to play a dual role—the integrated role and the specialised role. According to the integrated role they have to educate the people about the programme and principles underlying the Community Development programme and to enlist their willing co-operation in the various activities within the Block. According to the specialised role they are responsible for implementing the various schemes drawn up under Social Education.

The Social Education Programme in a Block consists of organising Community Recreation Centres, Youth Clubs. Farmer's Clubs, Young Farmer's Clubs and Mahila Samajams, conducting film shows, group discussions and study classes, organising *Sramadan* for Community Development work, educating the people for better scientific methods of cultivation, educating the people about better citizenship and organising libraries, reading rooms and Kala Samithies. The Table given below gives details of the achievements in the field of Social Education in the District up to June 1959.

Community Centre opened	..	1
Children's Park	..	1
Sports Clubs organised	..	6
Adult literacy Centres opened	..	5
New libraries and Reading Rooms	..	31
Cultural Clubs, Farmer's Club, Youth Clubs, etc.		10
Women's Clubs	..	6
Tailoring and Sewing Classes	..	3
Village leaders organisations opened	..	18
Village Leaders trained	..	262
Public meetings organised	..	130

All India Radio, Kozhikode

The Kozhikode Station of the All India Radio is housed in the French Loge and centrally located on the Beach Road. It is nearly six furlongs north-west of the Calicut Railway Station. The Station went on the air on May 14, 1950. The last in the series of Pilot Stations set up under the first phase of development of the All India Radio, this Station was started to cater to the needs of the Malabar area, then part of the Madras State. Since 1951, it has been linked with the All India Radio, Trivandrum, for the mutual relay of programmes.

The Kozhikode transmitter of One Kilowatt power transmits programmes on 441.2 metres. There are plans to install a 10 Kilowatt medium wave transmitter at Kozhikode very shortly. When this more powerful transmitter starts to function, the existing One Kilowatt transmitter is to be used to provide an alternative light programme. The Station began with two transmissions, one in the morning and another in the evening, with a total average duration of programmes of about six hours a day. Now it has three transmissions, i.e. morning, mid-day and evening. The total average duration of programmes per day is about eight hours.

The Station broadcasts classical Karnatak music, popular music of lighter types, and music indigenous to the region in good measure. Malayalam songs, *Kathakali*, *Panchavadyam Tullal*, *Chendamelam*, *Ashtapadi*, etc. are featured in the programmes regularly. Popular music of the lighter variety rendered by regional artists as well as other light items like film songs etc. are also broadcast frequently. Recorded music programmes include those processed by the Transcription

Service of the All India Radio. The Station's Instrumental Ensemble performs at stated intervals. Special audience programmes are also broadcast from this Station e.g. Rural programmes, Women's programmes, Children's programmes and *Yuvalokam*, a youth contact programme. Special programmes for industrial workers are being relayed from Trivandrum. Dramas constitute another main fare served by the Station. The talent available in the zone, both among writers and actors, is utilized. In presenting these programmes sometimes Drama Troupes are also invited to present plays for broadcast. Developmental activities under the Five Year Plans are covered in a variety of ways such as talks, interviews with people who implement the plan, quiz programmes, documentaries on the various N.E.S. Blocks and major schemes etc., discussions, songs and features in the General and Special Audience programmes and publicity talks arranged by the various Departments of the State Government. In a way one programme or other bears a reference to the developmental activities of the Plan.

The Kozhikode Station serves as an effective medium for the cultural expression of the people of the northern zone of Kerala and taps to the maximum possible extent all the artistic talents available in the zone. In conjunction with the more powerful transmitter now functioning at Trichur, it tries to give good broadcast coverage to the northern parts of Kerala. When its power is augmented in the near future as planned, its capacity to provide a stronger radio signal for reception will be greater.

LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL SOCIETIES.

Kalasamithies

A large number of *Kalasamithies* function in the Kozhikode District. It is a feature of these Art Associations that all of them are the offspring of private initiative. They cater to the aesthetic tastes of the common people. They conduct classes for boys and girls interested in the study of fine arts like dancing and music, night classes, adult literary classes etc., run libraries and reading rooms, arrange music performances, art shows and dramas, and devise every possible means for the promotion of fine arts with the limited funds at their disposal. In order to give encouragement to the organisation in their activities the Kerala Sangeetha Nataka Akademi was

established by the Kerala Government in 1958. Altogether 97 Kalasamithies in the Kozhikode District received assistance from the Akademi in 1957-58. For the purpose of giving grant-in-aid they were classified into three categories. The classification was made on the basis of the following factors (1) Tradition of the institution, (2) Nature of the activity and art forms practised, (3) Area covered by the activity of the institution, (4) Total number of membership, (5) Total annual income and expenditure and (6) Assets and liabilities. Based on this classification 11 Kalasamithies were included in the A category, 33 into B category and 53 into C category. Brief accounts of some of the most important Kalasamithies are given below.

Kara Lalithakala Samithi, Calicut

The Kara Lalithakala Samithi was started in 1951. It is located at Karaparamba village in the Kozhikode District. In 1958-59 it had 40 members. In the same year it had an income Rs. 3,715 and an expenditure of Rs. 3,795. The assets of the Samithi were worth about Rs. 5,000. It conducts classes in music and musical instruments such as harmonium, tabala, etc. Attached to the Samithi there is a Club Section which provides facilities for in-door games to its members. The Samithi consists of several active artists, many of whom are Radio stars, well known musicians, experienced actors and writers.

Sundara Kala Samithi, Villiapally

Started on the 14th November 1955, it is located at Villiapally in the Badagara Taluk. In 1958-59 it had a membership of 60. In the same year the income of the Samithi was Rs. 1,000. A *Kathakali* study class was started under the auspices of the Samithi in 1956. The Dramatic Section of the Samithi had staged several dramas in the various parts of Kerala. A music class and a drawing class are also being run under its auspices. Attached to it there is a library which contains more than 800 volumes and a *Kalari* (gymnasium) which imparts instruction in *Kalaripayattu* to young men.

Pantheerankavu Kalasamithi

Established on the 2nd June 1954, it is located at Pantheerankavu in Kozhikode Taluk. In 1958-59 the Samithi had 93 members on its rolls and had a total income of Rs. 1,048.

It runs a music class which gives instruction in music and musical instruments. The Samithi has conducted many dramas and other art performances in various parts of the District.

Radhakrishna Nritha Kalalayam, Badagara

The Radhakrishna Nritha Kalalayam was started on the 1st June 1957 and it is located at Meppayur in Badagara Taluk. It is intended to impart training to the students in music and dancing. In 1958-59 there were 15 students undergoing training here.

Saibaba Kalasamithi, Quilandi

This was started on the 14th March 1954, and is located in Quilandi town. In 1958-59 it had 65 members on its rolls. In the same year its income was Rs. 1,800 and expenditure Rs. 2,150. It imparts instruction to students in drama, music and dance. There were 57 students undergoing training here in 1958-59. The Samithi has conducted performances in music, drama and dance in various places in the District.

Karad Kalasamithi and Granthalayam

Established on the 10th August 1955, it is located at Azhinhilam in the Ernad Taluk. It had 162 members on its rolls in 1958-59. In the same year the income of the Samithi was Rs. 1,277 while its expenditure was Rs. 1,152. Attached to the Kalasamithi there is a library consisting of more than 900 volumes. The Samithi offers instruction in dance and *Kolkali*. A literary discussion class is also run under its auspices.

The Brothers Dramatic Association

The Brothers Dramatic Club, located at Kalathimkunnu in Calicut, was started on 4th April, 1951. Its aim is to conduct dramas, musical programmes and elocution, adult education and dance classes. In 1958-59 it had 52 members on its rolls. Its income for the year was Rs. 828 while the expenditure was Rs. 815. There were 32 girl students undergoing training in the dance class run by the association. In the same year there were 25 persons between the ages of 25 and 40 undergoing studies in the Night School conducted under its auspices.

CULTURAL LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS.

Some of the leading cultural and literary periodicals of Kerala are published from Calicut. The most important of them are the *Mathrubhoomi Weekly*, the *Kerala Law Journal*, the

Yugaprabhath, the *Chandrika*, the *Krishikaran*, the *Prapancham*, the *Purogathi*, and the *Kesari*. The *Mathrubhoomi Weekly* started publication in 1932. Unequalled in circulation and unique in its coverage of Kerala State it occupies a very high position among the literary periodicals of Kerala. Articles of a high literary standard, a full complement of the week's news photos, and various special features have made the *Mathrubhoomi Weekly* the favourite of the Malayalam speaking people in India and abroad. Its average net sale for July-December 1959 was 53975 copies of which 8972 were sold outside Kerala State. The *Yugaprabhat* is the most important Hindi publication from South India. With the acceptance of Hindi as the national language, the need for a standard journal to provide a common forum for cultural exchange between the South and the North was keenly felt. In response to this need the *Yugaprabhat* was started in 1956. Its object is to promote the spread of Hindi among the people of Kerala and South India and to provide a cultural link between the Hindi speaking and non-Hindi speaking people of the country. It also aims at the promotion of the political unity of India. The *Yugaprabhat* is a fortnightly with an average circulation of 1200 copies. It is owned and managed by the Mathrubhoomi Printing and Publishing Company at Calicut. *The Kerala Law Journal* is a law weekly published mainly for the use of the members of the legal profession. It publishes reports of important cases in the High Court and also important enactments of the State Legislature and Union Parliament. It commenced publication in 1956. It is in circulation in all the parts of Kerala and its maximum certified net sale in 1961 was about 1200 copies. The *Chandrika* started in 1950 is a literary and cultural weekly intended mainly to cater to the tastes of the Muslim community. In 1961 it had a weekly circulation of 5923. The *Krishikaran* started in 1952 is devoted to such subjects as Agriculture and Animal Husbandry and it had in 1961 a circulation of 5112. The *Prapancham* (1956), the *Purogathi* (1959) and the *Kesari* (1951) had a circulation of 5220, 4240 and 1948 copies respectively in 1961.

LIBRARIES

The beginnings of the Library movement in the District may be traced back to the latter half of the 19th century. The District Central Library, Calicut, which is the most important library was founded during this period. It was run by the

Calicut Municipality as the Municipal Library till 1952. Besides this Library, several small libraries were also established in important rural centres of the District.

Local Library Authority

With Independence the library movement received an impetus. In 1948 the Madras Government passed the Madras Public Libraries Act the object of which was to organise a network of main and branch libraries in each District and stock them with suitable books which would be accessible to the common literate masses. In pursuance of the provisions of this Act a Local Library Authority was constituted in Kozhikode in 1951 for the purpose of organising and administering the libraries. In 1952 the Municipal Library with 7000 volumes was taken over by the Authority. In succeeding years the libraries at Manjeri, Badagara, Panthalayani, Tirur, Perambra, Beypore, Kunnamangalam, etc. also came under its control.

The Local Library Authority consists of official and non-official members elected by the District Board, Municipalities and Panchayats in the District. Their term of office is for three years. The Authority may appoint an Executive Committee of 7 from among its members and may delegate powers to this committee. Sub-committees are also formed to enquire into or advise on any matter connected with the Local Library Authority. The main responsibility for the administration of libraries and carrying out of orders relating to the Authority rests with the Secretary. It may be noted that the Secretary of the Local Library Authority is the District Educational Officer, Kozhikode. In case the Authority ceases to exist the Secretary will carry on its work as usual till its reconstitution.

The Local Library Authority has since its formation tried its best to form public libraries in the urban and rural areas under its jurisdiction. It is empowered to levy in its area library cess in the form of a surcharge on the property tax or house tax levied in such areas under the District Municipalities Act or the Local Boards Act, as the case may be, at the rate of six pies for every whole rupee in the property tax or house tax so levied. The cess is collected in the Municipal areas by the Municipal Councils and in Panchayat areas by the Panchayats. The amount is the fund of the Local Library Authority and is utilised for all expenses under the Public Library Act.

The other sources of income of the Authority include contributions, gifts and income from endowments made for the benefit of public libraries, special grants from Government, fees, fines and other amounts collected from the libraries and a government contribution equal to the amount collected as cess. Periodical inspections of branch libraries and rural libraries are done by the Chairman of the Authority twice a year. Recommending grants to libraries run by the Panchayats, Grama Sanghams, and private agencies also forms one of the duties of the Authority. Private Libraries have to consult the Authority in regard to their bye-laws and the list of books they have to purchase.

On 1st June 1960 the most important institution managed by the Authority was the District Central Library at Calicut. Besides there were 4 Branch Libraries, 4 Rural Libraries and 5 Book Delivery stations in the District under its control. The Branch Libraries are located at Badagara, Panthalayini, Manjeri, and Tirur. The Rural Libraries are those at Kottakkal, Manjeri, Perambra and Vettoli and the Book Delivery stations are Kunnamangalam, Koduvalli, Elathur, Beypore and Ramanattukara. On an average an amount of Rs. 1,500 is spent annually for the purchase of books and periodicals for each of the Branch Libraries and Rs. 1,000 for each of the Rural Libraries. The supply of books to the Book Delivery stations is being done by the District Central Library. In addition 28 libraries located in various parts of the District are given grant-in-aid by the Local Library Authority.

Grandhasala Sangham

Since 1957 many of the libraries in the District have got themselves affiliated to the Kerala Grandhasala Sangham. It may be noted that the Local Library Authority is essentially an official body while the Grandhasala Sangham is a non-official organisation devoted to the promotion of the library movement on popular lines. In 1959-60, 199 libraries in the District were working under its control and supervision, and they had a total collection of 99782 volumes. The total number of

members was 10362 of which 9956 were men and the rest women. The other important details regarding these libraries are given below.

Total number of books issued	156024
Total Income	Rs. 45,075
Total amount spent for periodicals	Rs. 12,126
Total amount received as grant from N.E.S. Blocks	Rs. 560
Total number of visitors	1358811

The most important libraries in the District are the District Central Library, Calicut, Sen Gupta Library Calicut, and the Wilkinson Law Library, Calicut. The details regarding these are given below.

District Central Library, Calicut

The early history of this institution has already been sketched. In June 1961 it had a total collection of 15746 volumes. Of these 8718 were books in English, 6772 in Malayalam, 145 in Hindi and 95 in Tamil. An amount of Rs. 5,000 is annually spent for purchase of books and Rs. 1,500 for newspapers and other periodicals. All leading dailies and periodicals are being purchased for the library. On an average 1000 people visit the library and 121 books are issued from here every day. In June 1961 there were altogether 1902 members on its rolls. A children's section has been opened and a good collection of books on children's literature has been provided. With a view to distributing books among the rural population, a Distributing Library has been attached to the District Central Library and Rural Libraries recognised by the Government are admitted as members of the Distributing Library. In 1961 there were nine recognised libraries as members. It may be noted that the District Central Library is under the administrative control of the District Educational Officer, Kozhikode, who is the ex-officio Secretary of the Local Library Authority.

The Sen Gupta Public Library, Calicut

The Sen Gupta Library, located at Putiyara, Calicut, was started on the 15th September, 1933. In 1942 it got recognition from the Madras Government. Since 1956 it is located in a nice and newly constructed building of its own. An Arts Club and a Children's Club have been organised and attached to the library. In 1959 it had a total collection of 5,000 books.

The Wilkinson Law Library, Calicut

The Wilkinson Law Library started functioning in 1886 as a result of the interest taken by certain lawyers of Calicut. It derives its name from F. H. Wilkinson, the then District Judge of Malabar, who took a very active part in its establishment. At the beginning the library had only 58 volumes but several new books were purchased in succeeding years. In January 1950 S. V. Venkitachala Iyer a leading lawyer presented to it the whole of his library consisting of 500 volumes. In the same year another lawyer T. S. Balasubramonia Iyer also presented 150 volumes to the Library. In 1951 the library had a total collection of more than 2000 books. All practitioners, judges and apprentices are entitled to become members of this library. It is managed by a Managing Committee consisting of a President, a Vice-President and five other members one of whom is the Honorary Secretary. The authority for purchasing law books and subscribing for law journals is vested in the Managing Committee.

Museums etc.

There are no Museums, and Botanical and Zoological gardens in this District.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Early History

Cleveland, writing in the *"Madras Journal of Medical Science"* in 1863, described "the climate of Malabar as very damp, with an oppressive moist heat called Malabar weather, lowering heart's action and causing mental depression. He said that small-pox epidemics were common and confluent small-pox was a common type. Vaccine lymph deteriorated rapidly in hot climate. Cholera epidemics were also common and a severe epidemic of Cholera broke out in 1859. Endemic diseases like Leprosy and Elephantiasis were common and scrotal elephantiasis was more common, often of big size, in Calicut, north Malabar and Laccadives. Sanitation was very low among Mukkuvas and Moplahs and eye diseases were common among them. Various skin diseases and anasarca were also met with frequently".

The earliest system of medical treatment that has been in vogue in the Kozhikode District is Ayurveda. In the past the system had the advantage of being patronised everywhere by the palace and the aristocracy. Its progress was also due to the abundance of medicinal herbs in the region. But the wide popularity of Ayurveda in the District in recent times is pre-eminently due to the efforts of Vaidyaratnam P. S. Warrier of Kottakkal. The Kottakkal Arya Vaidyasala founded by him in 1900 is even to-day a premier institution which has earned all-India renown. P. S. Warrier was also the first to start and edit an Ayurvedic Journal called *"Dhanwandhari"* in Malayalam. The *"Ashtanga Sareera"*, a Malayalam work on anatomy written by Warrier in Sanskrit is a useful work for the students and practitioners of Ayurveda.

In the branch of allopathy also the district kept abreast of the progress made elsewhere in the State. Civil hospitals were opened here in the middle of the last century. *Zilla* surgeons were appointed in Calicut primarily for the benefit of officials and troops. The first public hospital was set up

at Calicut in 1845. Twenty years later it was taken over by the Calicut Municipality. The local boards opened hospitals and dispensaries at all Taluk centres and important villages. About 1920 a Leper Asylum was opened at Chevayur by the "Mission to Lepers". In the same year Government took over the management of the Hospitals at Calicut with a view to improving the facilities provided for medical treatment at the district headquarters. The Hospital at Manjeri was taken over by the Government in 1928. A Mental Hospital was opened at Puthiyara, a suburb of Calicut in 1872. A hospital for women and children was also soon set up at Calicut. The Mission Trust of Southern India maintained a hospital at Calicut and dispensaries at Kodakkal and Chombala.

VITAL STATISTICS

From the earliest known times registration of vital statistics in the rural areas of the District formed part of the duties of the *adhikari* or the village headman, while in municipal towns it was done by a special agency. The registration was naturally defective, but with the establishment of the Public Health Department in 1925 there was some improvement. The Madras Registration of Births and Deaths Act No. III of 1889 as amended in 1945, and the Rules framed thereunder are now in force in the whole of the Kozhikode District except South Wynad Taluk and certain villages in Nilambur. The Rules framed under the Madras District Municipalities Act (1920) are in force in the Calicut Municipality. Here the Health Assistant who does vaccination work also attends to the registration of births and deaths in each of the 9 divisions into which the city is divided for the purpose. The statement on page 691 gives particulars of vital statistics registered in the Municipality during the years 1959 and 1960.

In the rural areas of the District, village headmen continue to be the registrars of births and deaths while in the Travancore-Cochin area the work of registration of vital statistics has been transferred from the revenue staff to the public health staff. The vital statistics figures are ultimately compiled by the Statistics Department. The figures of vital statistics for the District prior to 1958 are not available. The figures for 1958 are however given in page 691. From a comparative study of the figures relating to vital statistics it has been found that the Kozhikode District has the highest rate for still births

Vital Statistics registered in Calicut Municipality 1959-60.

	1959		1960		Average for the previous 5 years 1955 to 1959	
	Total No. Regd.	*Rate per 1000 of estimated population*	*Total No. Regd.*	*Rate per 1000 of estimated population*	*No.*	*Rate*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Births .	7,954	50.11	8,153	51.36	41,444	8.288
Death .	3,993	25.16	3,633	22.88	20,389	4.078
Death from Cholera .	Nil	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	1	0.02
Death from Small-pox.	37	0.23	38	0.24	132	26
Death from plague .	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
Fever other than Malaria .	134	0.84	200	1.26	1,188	237.06
Death from Malaria .	1	0.006	1	0.006	6	1.02
Death from dysentery and diarrhoea .	245	1.54	197	1.24	992	198.04
Death from Enteric fever .	51	0.32	39	0.24	297	59.02
Death from T. B. of lungs .	236	1.49	210	1.32	1,280	156.00
Deaths from other respiratory diseases.	153	0.96	160	1.008	829	165.08
Deaths from Maternal mortality .	*47	5.55	51	6.25	332	66.04
Deaths from infantile mortality .	†866	108.88	632	77.51	632	126.04

*Rate per 1000 of the births including still births.
†Rate per 1000 of the live births.

Vital Statistics for Kozhikode District 1958.

	Births.		*Deaths.*		*Still Births.*		*Infant Deaths.*		*Maternal Deaths.*	
	No.	*Rate.*	*No.*	*Rate.*	*No.*	*Rate.*	*No.*	*Rate.*	*No.*	*Rate.*
Rural	53571	25·30	19276	9·14	177	3·29	3374	62·98	199	3·70
Urban	9074	45.14	1878	18·06	589	60·95	866	95·44	46	4·76
Total	62645	27·11	21154	10·07	766	12·08	4240	67·68	345	3·86

and deaths in the State. For urban areas also the highest rate for maternal deaths is in the Kozhikode District. In order to eliminate defective registration Health Assistants have in recent times extended their co-operation to the revenue staff in the District.

DISEASES

The following statement shows the deaths that took place due to some of the major diseases common to the District during 1959-60.

Name of the disease.	*Deaths.*
Fever	2,839
Small-pox	297
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	1,422
Respiratory Diseases	1,489
All other cases	13,288

Small-pox

From very early times small-pox has been a frequent scourge in the District. This is due to the slow progress made by vaccination. As early as 1801 rewards were offered to the people who successfully practised vaccination for small-pox and in 1803 the services of Sub-Collectors were utilised for persuading the infected to submit to vaccination. Due to the scattered location of houses the vaccinator's job was a difficult one. Vaccination was however made compulsory in Calicut Municipality in 1914 and in parts of Wynad in 1925. The Municipality employed its own vaccinators who worked under the supervision of the Health Officer or Civil Surgeon. The rural areas were divided into several ranges each under the supervision of a Health Inspector who was under the control of the District Health Officer. Lymph obtained from the King Institute, Madras, was used for vaccination.

In spite of the various measures taken by the Government to control the disease small-pox continues to be a common disease in the District even today. It is seen that there were 1,412 attacks of and 297 fatal casualities due to small-pox in 1959-60. The total number of deaths due to small-pox in Calicut city was 57 in 1958-59 and 34 in 1959-60.

Small-pox vaccination is now compulsory throughout the District. For the purpose of vaccination the Calicut Municipality is divided into nine divisions, each division being in the charge of a Health Assistant. The total number of cases of primary and re-vaccination conducted during 1959-60 were 4,222 and 55,187 as against 4,158 and 45,325 respectively in the previous year. The number of successful cases of vaccination per 1,000 of the population was 55.45 during 1959-60 as against 54.21 in the previous year. In Badagara Municipality also the vaccination work is attended to by Health Assistants. In the rural areas of the District vaccination is carried on as per the Rules passed under the Malabar Local Bodies Act and the Depot system is adopted.

The out-turn of vaccination work in the District is very low. The probable reason is that while in the Travancore-Cochin area there is a Health Assistant for every 15,000 of the population, in the Malabar area there is only one Health Assistant for every 50,000 of the population. It is significant that the percentage of success in re-vaccination conducted in the Kozhikode District during 1957-58 was 15.8 while the corresponding figure in Trivandrum District was 73.1. The following table shows the vaccination work done by the Health Assistants in the District in 1959-60.

Name of Ranges.	No. of Vaccinations.			Successful.		
	Primary and Secondary Vaccination.	Re-Vaccination	Total.	PV&SV.	R. V.	Total
1. Badagara	8,106	33,993	42,099	5,639	2,328	7,967
2. Quilandi	8,951	44,042	52,993	5,713	2,618	8,331
3. Kozhikode	14,622	65,708	80,330	12,351	7,966	20,317
4. Parappanangadi	9,196	40,191	49,387	5,712	2,426	8,138
5. Manjeri	10,833	61,235	72,068	8,739	8,313	17,052
6. Tirur	8,692	48,223	56,915	6,135	6,716	12,851
7. South Wynad	7,692	54,639	62,331	7,[illegible]31	6,347	13,078
Total	68,092	3,48,031	4,16,123	52,020	36,714	87,734

Small-pox Eradication Pilot Project

As part of the National Small-pox Eradication programme during the Third Five Year Plan, a Small-pox Eradication Pilot Project, one of the 12 of its kind in India, was started in Kerala. Kozhikode being a problem district from the point of view of communication and a place not yet free from the high incidence of Small-pox during the last two decades, was chosen as the area of the Project. The taluks of South Wynad, Quilandi and Kozhikode were covered by the Project. The population of the project area was 12 lakhs. It was covered completely within a period of 6 months i.e. from August 16, 1960 to February 2, 1961. 7.67 lakhs vaccination were done by the project staff and 2 lakhs by the regular public health staff during this period, as routine measure during small-pox outbreaks and also as mopping up work. 80% of the population were protected by vaccination. The staff verified 57.3% of the primary vaccinations and 21.9% of the re-vaccinations. The percentage of success in the primary vaccination was 99.6% and in re-vaccination 69%. The per capita expenditure worked out to be np. 25 only including the cost of vaccine lymph. The details are given in the following tables.

PRIMARY VACCINATION AGE GROUPS AND RESULTS.

Serial No.	*Age group*		*Percentage*	*Number*
1	0—6 months	..	8%	3,656
2	6 months to 1 year	..	23%	10,414
3	1 year to 5 years	..	42%	19,888
4	5 years to 10 years	..	16%	7,342
5	Above 10 years	..	11%	4,279
	Total	..	100%	45,579

RESULTS OF RE-VACCINATIONS IN PERSONS WITH DIFFERENT VACCINATION STATUS.

Sl. No.	*Frequency of re-vaccination*	*No. re-vaccinated in project year*	*No. Verified*	*Result*	
				Success	*Failure*
1	Yearly	2,39,460	10,489	842	9,647
2	Once every 2 years	1,90,035	17,033	615	16,418
3	Once every 3 years	1,89,619	27,392	20,819	6,563
4	Every 5 years	98,473	30,915	22,416	8,499
5	At irregular intervals	96,519	49,266	44,617	4,649
6	No. re-vaccination	87,003	27,868	23,150	4,718
	Total	9,01,109	1,62,963	1,12,459	50,494

The work in connection with the Pilot Project brought out several interesting facts. It was a matter for surprise that refusals among the educated classes were in no way less than among uneducated ones. Some educated classes of people including lawyers refused to get themselves vaccinated on the gorund that they did not believe in vaccination. Some others did so on the pretext of want of legislation for compulsory vaccination during the project period or on some such flimsy grounds. Cases of conscientious objection based upon belief in homoeopathy etc. were also met with in the enlightened sections of the population. This was a strange anomaly as compulsory vaccination and re-vaccination had been in force the District for a number of years. Resistance to vaccination was generally due to prejudices, superstitious beliefs or fear of loss of earning consequent on the absence from duty in the event of reaction following the vaccination of the unprotected adults.

Anaemia and Malnutrition

Morbidity reports from hospitals in the District show large number of cases of "Anaemia". This condition is the result of food deficiencies, intestinal parasits or malaria. Hook-worm infection is the chief cause. Low economic status of the majority of the people, lack of knowledge regarding proper diets, and insanitation are also contributory causes. Anaemia is one of the important factors affecting the health of expectant mothers.

Gastric and Intestinal Disorders

A variety of disorders such as gastritis, gastric ulcer, enteritis colitis, both acute and chronic, appendicitis, diarrhoea, dysentery, dyspepsia, etc. come under the category of intestinal disorders. Intestinal infestation with the hook-worm, round worm, and tape worm, is also widely prevalent. Habits such as the intake of highly spiced foods, consumption of contaminated vegetables and meat, and drinking of impure water as well as the absence of sanitary latrines are the major factors favourable to the development of these gastric and intestinal disorders mentioned above.

Peptic ulcer is common as in other districts of the State. Dietary habits, and food deficiencies are important factors in the causation of this disease. Amoebic abscess of the lever is also commonly seen. This follows amoebic dysentery and is more common among those addicted to alcohol.

During the year 1959-60 there were 1,422 deaths in the District due to dysentery and diarrhoea. In Calicut city the figures of fatal casualities for dysentery during the year 1958-59 were 148 and during the year 1959-60, 135.

Diseases of the Respiratory system

Hospital records show that scarcely a child passes through its childhood without being affected by respiratory diseases such as bronchitis, broncho pneumonia and whooping cough. Respiratory diseases claimed a toll of 1,489 lives in the District during 1959-60. In Calicut city the total number of deaths due to respiratory diseases during the year 1958-59 was 531. But there was a sharp decline of the number of deaths in the next year, the number of deaths being only 98.

Typhoid

Typhoid fever is of frequent occurrence all over the District either in an epidemic or sporadic form. In 1957-58 the number of typhoid attacks in the district were 23 though there were no casualities.[1] T.A.B. vaccine for prophylactic inoculation against typhoid has been made available in all Government hospitals and dispensaries. The total number of T.A.B. inoculations conducted in the District during the period 1957-58 was 909. Anti-typhoid inoculation, disinfection of infected houses and articles, chlorination of drinking water sources and isolation of patients are the chief control measures adopted against the disease.

Tuberculosis

Though mortality from tuberculosis is showing signs of decline, the incidence rate remains more or less the same both in urban and rural areas. The disease can be eradicated only by a mass attack on it through domiciliary chemotherapy. A mass B.C.G. Vaccination was conducted in the District in 1957 with the co-operation of the UNICEF. As the conditions are now favourable for shifting the emphasis from institutional care to public health and control measures, the present idea is to set up as many clinics and isolation wards as possible

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1 The registered figures for attacks and deaths from typhoid are very much below the actual figures, as no facilities exist for proper diagnosis in the rural areas and most cases are registered under "Fevers".

(one clinic for a population of one million). A T.B. Clinic with a bed strength of 45 has been set up in Calicut, while another with a bed strength of 50 is to be opened at Manjeri.

Dental Diseases

According to a survey conducted by a prominent Dental Surgeon in 1961 it has been found out that a very high percentage of the population in the District as in the rest of Kerala suffer from gum diseases of different stages. After a study of about 1,000 persons of all walks of life it came to light that the majority of the people were suffering from severe form of pyorrhoea. Pyorrhoea is much more prevalent here than in any other part of the country. The expert who conducted the survey attributes this phenomenon to the low consumption of nutritional requirements by the people and the oral hygiene methods practised here, which, according to him, is not adequate enough for the protection of the gums. The incidence of dental caries is very high, presumably owing to the consumption of high carbohydrate diets. This usually occurs in the age group of two to fourteen.

Influenza Epidemic in 1957.

There was a widespread epidemic of Influenza in Kerala in 1957. The Trivandrum and Kozhikode Districts were the worst hit by this epidemic. The first case of Influenza detected in the Kozhikode District was on 8th July 1957. The authorities immediately took precautionary steps to meet the epidemic. Sufficient quantities of Soda Salicilate mixture and A.P.C. tablets were stored in all Government hospitals in Kozhikode District for treating the case. Influenza was declared as a notifiable disease under the Madras Public Health Act (1939) and the District Collector was authorised to enforce the provisions of the Act. Mobile teams were organised for free domiciliary distribution of drugs. Emergency staff was recruited and additional beds were provided in the hospitals. The vast majority of cases were mild and domiciliary treatment was sufficient for them. Patients attaining high temperature alone (100° and above) were hospitalised. Grants were distributed to private medical institutions and institutions under Local Boards for undergoing treatment of influenza. Schools, Colleges, and cinema theatres were closed in the District according to necessity during the period of the epidemic which was

about 2½ months from the last week of May. The highest incidence was during the first week of July. Towards the third week of August the virulence of the epidemic abated almost completely.

The Calicut Municipality reported a fatal case due to influenza in the city during the year 1959-60.

Other Diseases

Some of the other common diseases in the district are scabies, muscular rheumatism, gastro enteritis, asthma and avitaminosis. The common mental diseases in the District are schizophrenia, manic depressive psychosis, hysteria and anxiety states.

Malaria

The entire hilly tract of South Wynad Taluk was at one time notorious for Malaria and allied diseases such as cerebral and black water fever. The foothill area of Ernad and the eastern regions of Quilandi, Badagara and Kozhikode Taluks were also at one time highly malarious regions. The rate of mortality was so high among the local people that even those living on the plains in the neighbourhood were afraid of travelling upto the Ghats and settling down in Wynad in spite of the very low price of the land and the high fertility of the soil. Thus for successive decades the whole area remained abandoned. It was during the period 1910-20 that malaria control by drainage and oil-spraying was started in right earnest.

In August 1938 the Wynad Malaria Field Station was established by the Public Health Department of the Madras State for the study of the epidemiology of the foothill type of malaria and the possibilities of instituting rural malaria control. This scheme was the first of its kind in India at that time, and hence was partly financed by the Indian Research Fund Association. Side by side with this an investigation and survey team from the Malaria Institute of India carried out the "Malaria Survey of Wynad" to assess the endemicity of the disease. The survey revealed a very high incidence of malaria, the spleen rate touching the cent per cent mark in certain localities. The disease spread usually during the post-monsoon months. The vector mosquito was identified as Anopheles

fluviatilis breeding in streams, swamps and drains. As there were no suitable insecticides then, the control measures were confined to shading, herbage packing, sluicing, flushing, etc. of the breeding places.

In December 1943 the Government of Madras launched a scheme of Land Colonisation for the benefit of ex-servicemen in the villages of Kidanganad, Nulpuzha, Nenmeni and Muppainad. Soon control work comprising anti-larval measures and Pyrethrum spray—killing of adult mosquitoes in human dwellings was in full swing. The results were amazing. There was substantial decrease in spleen and parasite rates in the colonisation area. With the advent of D.D.T. during the post-war period the new concept of malaria control by adult mosquito control became popular. D.D.T. spraying of houses and cattle-sheds was started in 1947 in the whole colonisation area, and by the end of 1951 the whole region was almost free of this long-standing scourge of Malaria. The cumulative spleen and parasite rates which stood at 60% and 15% respectively in 1944 were reduced to the negligible level of 3% and 0%. Anti-larval measures were soon replaced by D.D.T. spraying. In 1948 the scheme of anti-malaria work was so extended as to include the whole of Wynad. To protect the new settlers in the foothill areas of Kozhikode and Cannanore Districts the New Settler's Colony Anti-malaria Scheme was started in 1948.

The Anti-malaria Scheme under the Kozhikode Endemic Unit with headquarters at Calicut covers the Kozhikode and Cannanore Districts. This unit includes Wynad Taluk Anti-malaria Scheme and New Settler's Colony Anti-malaria Scheme and benefits a population of 4.1 lakhs. Under the Malaria Eradication Programme additional staff were appointed. D.D.T. spraying is carried out twice a year from November to May. The Nilambur Anti-malaria scheme was started in 1950 with assistance from W.H.O. This scheme benefits the malarious regions of Ernad, Perinthalmanna and Palghat taluks covering an area of 900 sq. miles. Under the Eradication Scheme this project is now part of Palghat Endemic unit with headquarters in Palghat. The Hypo Endemic Malaria Unit, Kozhikode, was started under the Malaria Eradication programme and covers Kozhikode, Quilandi and Badagara taluks and Cannanore district. This unit is under the Malaria Medical Officer at Kozhikode.

Filaria

The Kozhikode Filaria Control Unit comprising the area covered by Calicut and Mangalore cities and Kasargod was started in 1956 by the Madras Public Health Department under the National Filariasis Control Programme. In 1957-58 additional filarial regions in Kozhikode, Quilandi and Badagara taluks were also added to the Kozhikode Unit and a full filaria control unit was formed under the National Filariasis Control Programme. The unit is under a Filaria Officer at Kozhikode. Filariasis survey was done in 1956. Mass Hetrazan therapy was carried out from September 1956 to February 1957. Intensification of anti-larval work with the co-operation of the Kozhikode Municipal staff is being carried out. House spraying and assessment work are attended to by the Health Services Department. The filarial regions of Tirur taluk (Kozhikode district) Ponnani taluk (Palghat district) and Chowghat Taluk (Trichur district) are organised into a Filaria Control Unit with headquarters at Tirur. This unit covers 93 sq. miles in the 3 districts and benefits a population of 2.7 lakhs. It was started in 1958 under N.F.C. Programme. Preliminary Filariasis survey has been completed in the entire unit and arrangements have been made for mass hetrazan therapy. Both bancrofti and malayi types of filariasis are prevalent, the infection in Tirur Taluk being mainly bancrofti and Vector Culex fatigans.

MEDICAL ORGANISATION

The District Medical Officer of Health, Kozhikode, is in charge of the Medical and Public Health activities in the District. Next to him is the Assistant District Medical Officer of Health whose duties are confined to the medical side of the Department.

There are twenty-seven Medical and Public Health Institutions under the control of the District Medical Officer of Health, Kozhikode. They are 1. Women and Children's Hospital, Calicut, 2. Mental Hospital, Calicut, 3. Government Dispensary, Kunnamangalam, 4. Government Dispensary, Tamarasseri, 5. Secondary Health Centre, Badagara, 6. Public Health Unit, Nadapuram, 7. Public Health Unit, Kuttiyadi, 8. Public Health Unit, Valayam, 9. Government Dispensary, Tiruvallur, 10. Government Hospital, Manjeri, 11. Government Hospital, Nilambur, 12. Government Dispensary, Kalikavu, 13. Govern-

ment Dispensary, Ariyakkod, 14. Public Health Unit, Kondotti, 15. Public Health Unit, Wandur, 16. Government Hospital, Vayittiri, 17. Government Dispensary, Sultan's Battery, 18. Government Hospital, Kalpetta, 19. Wynad Land Colonisation Scheme Dispensary, Ambalavayal, 20. Government Dispensary, Tirur, 21. Government Dispensary, Valancheri, 22. Government Dispensary Tirurangadi, 23. Government Dispensary, Chaliyam, 24. Government Dispensary, Tanur, 25. Government Dispensary, Quilandi, 26. Primary Health Unit, Balusseri and 27. Primary Health Unit, Perambra.

Besides the Hospitals mentioned above there is a Government Hospital at Malappuram catering to the needs of the staff of the Malabar Special Police and their dependents, but here too the general public is offered out-patient treatment. For the benefit of the tribal people of Wynad a mobile Medical Unit is also functioning at Kalpetta.

For Public Health activities the District is divided into seven Ranges each of which is under a Health Inspector. Three Health Assistants are working under each of the Health Inspectors. Control of communicable diseases, prevention of food adulteration and keeping places of public resort such as market places, bus stands, etc. clean and tidy form part of the duty of the Helath Inspectors. Vaccination is the main duty of the Health Inspectors in all the Primary Health Units in the district.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

The following are brief accounts of the important hospitals and dispensaries in the district.

Medical College Hospital, Calicut.

The District Headquarters Hospital, Calicut, which was converted into the Medical College Hospital in August, 1955 is situated on the beach road and was opened in October, 1951. The hospital is staffed by a Civil Surgeon, seven Assistant Surgeons, fourteen Honorary Medical Officers thirty-four nurses and ten compounders. A Dental Clinic, a T.B. Clinic, a V.D. Clinic and a Blood Bank have been opened in this hospital during the Second Five Year Plan period. Among the specialists in the hospital are an Anaesthetist, Dental Surgeon, and V.D. and Skin Specialist. Of late an

Opthalmic Department, an E.N.T. Department, an Obstetrics and a Gynaecology Department and a Paediatric Unit have also been opened here. Bed strength of the hospital is 581. Construction of new buildings at Chevayur is under way to house the Medical College Hospital. The expenditure incurred on the hospital for the year 1960-61 was Rs. 9,23,164. The overall supervision and control of the hospital rests with the Superintendent.

Women and Children's Hospital, Calicut

One of the premier medical institutions in the district, the Women and Children's Hospital, Calicut was established in October 1901. It has a bed strength of 286. It has on its staff a Superintendent (II grade Civil Surgeon), seven Assistant Surgeons, two Honorary Medical Officers and twenty three nurses. The teaching Unit in Gynaecology and Obstetrics of the Medical College is functioning here. A Blood Bank and a Family Planning Clinic have also been set up in this hospital.

Mental Hospital, Calicut

Established as early as May 1872 at Puthiyara in Calicut, the Mental Hospital has two Psychiatrists. Of the seventeen nurses two possess Diploma in Psychiatric Nursing. Treatments such as Electric Convulsive Therapy, Insulin Therapy, Occupational and Recreational Therapy are given in the hospital. The bed strength of the hospital is 364.

Other Hospitals

In addition to the hospitals and dispensaries mentioned above the Calicut Municipality maintains a number of medical institutions of which the most important are the Infectious Diseases Hospital, Vellayil, and the dispensaries at Kallayi, Mankavu, Kuttichira, Vellayil and Chalapuram. The T. B. Clinic run by the Municipality is the only one of its kind run by any Municipality in the State. There is an average daily attendance of 103 patients most of whom are screened and given clinical treatment.

Details such as the names, staff position, bed strength and expenditure of the Government Hospitals and Dispensaries in the district are furnished in Appendix I.

Indian Medical Association

The Kozhikode branch of the Indian Medical Association has a membership of 72. It holds periodical meetings, and conducts film shows and symposia. It is reported that during the period 1959-60 two symposia on "Headache" and "Abdominal pain" and film shows on "Diabetes Mellitus" and "Peptic Ulcer" were conducted by the Association.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS AND NURSING HOMES

Asoka Hospital and Nursing Home, Calicut.

Situated on the Wynad road and north-east to the Mananchira, the Asoka Hospital was established in 1930. It is the earliest of the private hospitals in Calicut. Founded by Dr. Raman, the hospital lays stress on Sugery. Its operation theatre is one of the best. The staff in this hospital consists of three doctors, a midwife and three compounders. The hospital has two surgical wards and a radiograph (X-ray plant). It provides accommodation for 35 in-patients. During 1960 the total number of out-patients treated in this hospital was 6488.

Karunakara Pharmacy and Nursing Home, Calicut.

Situated on the Wynad road and near the Malabar Christian College the Nursing Home was established in 1931. It has two doctors, a midwife and two compounders. A surgical ward is attached to it. The bed strength of the hospital is eighteen. The total number of patients treated in 1960 was 14,040.

Other major private hospitals in the Calicut city are the Rajendra Nursing Home, Calicut Nursing Home, the Nirmala Hospital and the Ganesh Medical Hall. The grant-in-aid institutions in the District are the Poor Homes Leprosy Sanatorium, Chevayur and the Mission to Leprosy Sanatorium, Chevayur while the dispensaries at Kuttiyadi, Payyoli, Parappanangadi, Kottapadi, Tanur, Perambra, Meppayur and Meppadi are subsidised rural dispensaries.

INDIGENOUS MEDICINE

The District has a good number of Ayurvedic institutions. The Government Ayurveda Hospitals in the District are located at Badagara and Payyoli, each having a bed strength of ten

and staffed by two physicians, a compounder and two nurses. Besides these hospitals there are Government Ayurvedic dispensaries at Chaliapuram, Atholi, Chemmarathur, Vettam, Valluvambram, Edavanna, Olavattur, Edacheri, Vayittiri, Padinjarethara, Manthathur, Vylathur, and Meenangadi. Each dispensary has a physican and a compounder. Villages like Pasamba, Pantheerankavu, Mannur, Kannam, Peruvayal, Pakkanarpuram, Balusseri and Thiruvallur have subsidised rural Ayurvedic dispensaries.

The District Indigenous Medical Officer is in charge of the Department of Indigenous Medicine in the District. All the Ayurvedic hospitals and dispensaries are under his supervision.

Arya Vaidyasala, Kottakkal

Founded by Vaidya Ratnam P. S. Warrier in October 1900 the Kottakkal Arya Vaidyasala is today a synonym for Ayurveda throughout Kerala. The Ayurveda *Chikitsa Sala* (Hospital) attached to the Vaidyasala was established in 1924. It is a charitable hospital with fifty beds and an up-to-date dispensary where poor people are admitted as in-patients and given free treatment and food. An allopathic doctor is the Superintendent of the Hospital. He is assisted by able and qualified "Arya Vaidyans". A maternity ward with the services of a qualified nurse was recently opened here. The 39th All-India Ayurvedic Congress was held at Kottakkal in 1954. In the same year the Jubilee Nursing Home was started. Medicines manufactured at the *Vaidyasala* are sent to different parts of India and even exported overseas. Treatments such as *Navarakizhi, Dhara, Pizhichil,* etc. are provided here against paralysis, rheumatism, arthritis, blood-pressure and allied complaints. The Kottakkal Arya Vaidyasala has branches at Trivandrum, Ernakulam, Palghat, Tirur, Calicut and Erode.

Homoeopathic Dispensary, Calicut

The Government Homoeopathic Dispensary situated near the fifth Railway Gate in Vellayil, Calicut, was opened in March 1959. It is under the direct control of the Director of Indigenous Medicine and is in the charge of a Medical Officer. The total number of patients treated during the year 1960-61 was 57,058. Diseases of all kinds like pneumonia, bronchitis, pleurisy, asthma, tuberculosis, jaundice, whooping cough, etc. were treated here. The total expenditure entailed by the Dispensary for the year 1960-61 was Rs. 4,820.

MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE

Both Government and Voluntary Agencies play a significant part in safeguarding the health of the mother and the child through a large net-work of Maternity and Child Health Centres established throughout the district. The following is a Taluk-wise list of M.C.H. Centres in the District.

LIST OF M. C. H. CENTRES IN THE DISTRICT

Taluk	*Midwifery Centres*	*Sub centres of Health Units*	*M. C. H. Centres under the Second Five Year Plan*
Kozhikode	..	..	..
Quilandy	4	2	4
Badagara	6	7	..
Ernad	3	3	3
Tirur	..	..	2
South Wynad	6	..	1

In addition the Malabar District Board and the Panchayats run eight M.C.H. Centres each. The Calicut Municipality runs six centres while Voluntary Agencies including the Social Welfare Board run seven centres.

FAMILY PLANNING

All the Family Planning Centres in the District are managed directly by the Government and are attached to the Government medical institutions where the services of a Medical Officer are freely available for Family Planning Services. In each centre advice on contraception for spacing of births and general instructions for family welfare are given by qualified Health Visitors under the guidance of Medical Officers. This is being followed up by home visits of Health Visitors and Honorary Social Workers. They contact parents who need help and persuade them to come to the centre. For permanent limitation, sterilisation operation is advised and conducted free of charge in major hospitals such as the Medical College Hospital, Calicut and the Women and Children's Hospital, Calicut. 325 persons (207 men and 118 women) underwent sterilisation operation in the District during the

period between January 1959 and September 1959. Benefit allowance at the rate of Rs. 25 is given by the Government to those who undergo the operation provided their monthly income is below Rs. 200. Government servants are given a sum of Rs. 15. In addition to this benefit, five days extra casual leave for men and ten days extra casual leave for women are also granted. As a rule no benefit allowance is given to those whose monthly income is Rs. 200 or above.

Local Committees have been formed in all places where Family Planning Centres are functioning and the members of these committees persuade the local people to seek and utilise fully the services provided at the centres. To step up the tempo of the family planning drive in the District a District Committee consisting of the District Collector, District Medical Officer of Health, Chairman of the Calicut Municipal Council and others has been constituted. There are six Family Planning Centres in the District. (1) Women and Children's Hospital, Calicut, (2) Government Hospital, Perambra, (3) Primary Health Unit, Kondotti, (4) Government Hospital, Manjeri, (5) Government, Hospital, Quilandi and (6) Secondary Health Centre, Badagara. The number of persons who contacted the centres for family planning education during the period from January 1959 to September 1959 was 312.

Health Education

The Health Education Section of the Directorate of Health Services is responsible for the Health Education and field publicity programme in the District. In view of the special nature of the Malabar area where public health facilities are poorer than in the rest of the State, Government started in August, 1957 a Health Education Unit exclusively for the Malabar area with a staff of one District Health Education Officer, one Health Educator and others. In addition there is a Health Educator attached to the Maternity and Child Health Section who is in charge of field publicity and Health Education activities connected with the M.C.H Services. The Family Planning section has its own propaganda and publicity unit. There is a separate Health Education Unit attached to the B.C.G. organisation. Municipal and Panchayat authorities, Headmasters of Schools, Block Development Officers and others in different localities are contacted in organising Health Education activities which mainly consist of talks, lectures, film

shows and demonstrations covering several aspects of health, hygiene, prevention of diseases, etc. Co-operation of the people has been solicited for M.C.H. programme, anti-T.B. measures like B.C.G. vaccination and Malaria and Filarisis control programme. Activities connected with health education and publicity have contributed to the success of the public health campaigns to a great extent. The Health Services Department participates in the All India Exhibition annually held by the Calicut Municipality when models, charts and posters are displayed and explained to the visitors and hand-outs distributed. Leaflets and pamphlets on various public health subjects like Family Planning, Small-pox, Cholera, Model Latrine, pure water, Tuberculosis, Filariasis and prevention of infectious diseases are distributed throughout the district. The World Health Day is annually observed on a grand scale.

Drugs Control Administration

The Drugs Inspector is the executive officer in charge of Drugs Control Administration in the district. In the enforcement of the Drugs Act the main functions of the Drugs control administration consist of issuing licenses to manufacturers and dealers in drugs and to inspect their premises at regular intervals in order to ensure that the provisions of the Act are complied with by the licensees. A minimum standard of hygienic conditions, floor space, storage accommodation and a basic knowledge in dispensing pharmacy and in various aspects of the Drugs Act are insisted upon in the case of each druggist. Details of purchase and sale of potent and toxic drugs are directed to be recorded in the registers specially maintained for this purpose. Care is taken to see that drugs requiring cold storage are preserved in refrigerators. With the intensive drive against unauthorised sale of drugs, misuse of drugs by quacks and unqualified practitioners has almost been brought under control. The Drugs Inspector is empowered under the Drugs, and Magic Remedies (Objectionable Advertisement) Act to check and detain any advertisement about quack medicines and magic remedies. In close co-operation with the excise authorities he keeps a vigilant watch over the import and utilisation of narcotic drugs.

WATER SUPPLY SCHEMES

Urban Water Supply

Even before the Second World War investigation work was taken up for providing protected water supply to Calicut city but it was discontinued due to the outbreak of the war. The work was resumed in the post-war period and the scheme was formally inaugurated in the first half of 1956. It has been designed to serve only a population of 70,000. The headworks of the scheme is situated about five miles to the northeast of the city. From there the purified water is pumped to two overhead tanks situated at Putiyara, just outside the city limits and to a ground level Reservoir at Malaparamba, an elevated site in the city. The overhead tanks are situated at a commanding position and they serve the supply needs of the northern and southern parts of the city. The water is distributed through 284 public fountains. There are 692 house service connections. The existing water supply scheme is maintained by the Calicut Municipality. In order to augment protected water supply in Calicut city a new project costing Rs. 150 lakhs has been taken up. The source of water supply is the Chaliyar river, 28 miles away from Calicut, near Ariyakkod in Ernad Taluk where plentiful supply is available throughout the year. When the project is completed it would be possible to supply the citizens of Calicut purified water at the rate of 25 gallons per head, per day, with an additional supply of eight more gallons per head during the summer. It is proposed to treat this water and bring it through pipes and distribute it in Calicut, dividing the city into three zones, North, Central and South. Pumping of water from the main source of the Chaliyar river is required for the first 10 miles after which water would flow of its own accord for about 18 miles. It is also proposed to utilise the existing source at Poolakadavu.

Government are also contemplating a scheme of protected water supply to the Badagara municipal town at an estimated cost of Rs. 28 lakhs.

Rural Water Supply

Each Rural Water Supply scheme consists of a well of about 10′ to 15′ diameter, pipelines, pump-house and street taps. The water taken from the wells is purified by the latest

method of Surechlo Chlorinators and stored in overhead tanks or ground level reservoirs of about 3,000 to 5,000 gallons capacity each.

Rural Protected Water Supply schemes at (1) Kottakkal, (2) Cheruvannur, (3) Kakkodi, (4) Balusseri, (5) Nadapuram, (6) Kollam and (7) Quilandy, and (8) Tirur have already been completed and started functioning. Work on the schemes at (1) Naduvattam, (2) Kondotti, (3) Meppadi, (4) Perambra, (5) Kalpetta, (6) Sultan's Battery, (7) Vayittiri, (8) Kunnamangalam, (9) Tikkodi, (10) Edacheri, (11) Malappuram and (12) Manjeri have been taken up.

The following statement gives the estimated cost of each scheme and the population likely to be benefited by them.

	Name of Scheme		*Estimated cost*	*Population benefited (appr.)*
			Rs.	Rs.
1	Kottakkal	..	26,300	4,000
2	Cheruvannur	..	33,660	3,600
3	Kakkodi	..	31,400	3,500
4	Balusseri	..	9,070	2,000
5	Nadapuram	..	23,000	2,000
6	Kollam	..	30,470	3,000
7	Quilandi	..	5,972	3,000
8	Tirur	..	30,000	3,000
9	Naduvattam	..	47,300	3,200
10	Kondotti	..	37,000	2,000
11	Meppadi	..	1,00,000	7,500
12	Perambra	..	29,000	2,000
13	Kalpetta	..	45,170	2,000
14	Sultan's Battery	..	19,510	3,000
15	Vayittiri	..	89,130	3,000
16	Kunnamangalam	..	30,000	3,000
17	Tikkodi	..	54,000	3,000
18	Malappuram	..	210	3,000
19	Manjeri	..	700	2,000
20	Edacheri	..	500	2,000

In addition to the above, tube wells were also tried at the following places in Kozhikode District, namely (1) Vellayil, (2) Quilandi, (3) Tanur, (4) Parappanangadi, (5) Badagara,

(6) Kanniparamba, (7) Payyoli, (8) Tirur, (9) Chevayur, (10) Elathur. Of the above the first seven tube wells were partially successful, but those at Tirur and Chevayur were total failures and were abandoned. Work on the tube well at Kanniparamba is now in progress. The following statement shows the number of tube wells constructed and the estimated cost of each.

Sl. No.	*Name of tube well*		*Estimate amount* (Rs.)
1	Vellayil	..	13,450
2	Tanur	..	12,900
3	Quilandi	..	13,280
4	Parappanangadi	..	13,800
5	Badagara	..	13,550
6	Elathur	..	13,800
7	Payyoli	..	13,800
8	Tirur	..	13,900
9	Chevayur	..	3,610
10	Kanniparamba	..	3,400

Drainage

At present there is no underground drainage system in the District. The widespread mosquito nuisance and the dreadful filariasis in Calicut city and suburbs can be tackled only by the installation of an underground drainage system. Investigation on a comprehensive underground drainage system for Calicut is in progress.

SANITATION

Urban Sanitation

Sanitation in Calicut and Badagara is attended to by the Municipalities. The total number of public latrines in Calicut municipal town is 35. Rubbish and nightsoil are taken to the trenching ground situated about five miles away from the town and converted into compost. There are also a large number of private latrines under scavenging service.

Slum clearance

The coastal area of Calicut city is low-lying and inhabited by the poorest sections of the community. Their dwellings are kept in the most insanitary conditions,the floor of the houses being kept at ground level or even below the ground level. The Calicut Municipal Council has undertaken a slum clearance scheme at Vellayil covering an area of 20 acres of land. The Government of India have provided financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 5.76 lakhs for this slum clearance scheme. The lay-out and the building plan have also been finalised. The slum areas in residential and industrial areas of the city are also being reclaimed. Incidentally, stress is also being laid on laying parks and gardens, constructing recreation grounds, widening of roads and lanes, splaying of corners of roads etc.

APPENDIX I.

STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER OF MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS WITH THEIR LOCATION, BED STRENGTH, STAFF POSITION, EXPENDITURE ETC.

Name of Institution	*Bed strength*	*Staff position* (a) *Doctors*	*Staff position* (b) *Nurses*	*Expenditure in* (1960-61) Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)
Kozhikode Taluk				
(1) Medical College Hospital, Calicut	531	8	34	9,23,164
(2) Women & Children's	286	8	23	3,68,720
(3) Mental Hospital, Calicut	364	3	17	4,11,927
(4) Government Dispenary, Kunnamangalam	..	1	..	8,956
(5) Government Dispensary, Tamarasseri	10	1	..	7,526
Badagara Taluk				
(6) Secondary Health Centre, Badagara	31	3	3	72,068
(7) Public Health Unit, Nadapuram ..	15	1	..	15,786
(8) Public Health Unit, Kuttiyadi	6	1	..	16,159
(9) Public Health Unit, Valayam	..	1	..	24,168
(10) Government Dispensary, Tiruvallur	..	1	..	3,724
Ernad Taluk				
(11) Government Hospital, Manjeri	61	2	7	1,20,168
(12) Government Hospital, Nilambur	29	1	1	17,280
(13) Government Dispensary, Kalikavu	4	1	..	7,070
(14) Government Dispensary, Ariyakkod	4	1	..	8,050
(15) Public Health Unit, Kondotti	..	1	..	15,238
(16) Puplic Health Uniion Wandur	..	1	..	12,018

APPENDIX I—(*contd.*)

Name of Institution	*Bed strength*	*Staff position* (a) *Doctors*	(b) *Nurses*	*Expendit (1960-61)* Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)
South Wynad Taluk				
(17) Government Dispensary, Vayittiri	20	1	1	26,441
(18) Government Dispensary, Sultan's Battery	6	1	..	13,892
(19) Government Disepnsary, Kalpetta	5	1	..	8,923
(20) W. L. C. Dispensary, Ambalavayal	16	1	1	26,617
Tirur Taluk				
(21) Government Dispensary, Tirur	15	1	..	13,569
(22) Government Dispensary, Valancheri	..	1	..	8,618
(23) Government Dispensary, Tirurangadi	6	1	..	10,788
(24) Government Dispensary, Chaliyam	..	1	..	3,212
(25) Government Dispensary, Tanur ..	..	1	..	45,000
Quilandi Taluk				
(26) Government Dispensary, Quilandi ..	..	1	..	13,585
(27) Primary Health Unit, Balusseri	..	1	..	12,035
(28) Primary Health Unit, Perambra	..	1	..	10,817

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR WELFARE

The Labour Department attends to matters pertaining to the welfare of industrial workers in the State. Its main functions are conciliation under Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, inspection under such Acts as the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, the Madras Shops and Establishments Act, 1947, Plantation Labour Act, 1951, the Maternity Benefit Act, 1957, etc., and enquiry under the Indian Trade Unions Act and Industrial Employment (standing orders) Act, 1946. The District Labour Officer, Kozhikode, is the head of the Labour Department at the district level. He is under the immediate control of the Deputy Labour Commissioner, North Zone, with headquarters at Calicut. In addition to his duties arising from the performance of the functions enumerated earlier, he is also the appellate authority under the Madras Shops and Establishments Act, 1947. Under the District Labour Officer, Kozhikode, there are five Assistant Labour Officers having jurisdiction over each of the following areas (1) Kozhikode-1, (2) Kozhikode-2, (3) Manjeri, (4) Vayittiri and (5) Badagara. The Inspector of Shops and Establishments, Kozhikode and the Deputy Labour Officer, Kalpetta, also work under him. The functions of the Assistant Labour Officers are settlement of industrial disputes and inspection under the Minimum Wages Act, Madras Shops and Establishments Act and Plantation Labour Act. There is a Welfare Assistant attached to each of the Assistant Labour Officers. The Welfare Assistant attached to the Office of the Assistant Labour Officer, Badagara has been notified as an Inspector under the Madras Shops and Establishments Act in certain areas in Badagara. The Inspector of Shops and Establishments, Kozhikode conducts inspection work under the Shops and Establishments Act and Minimum Wages Act for Shops and Establishments in certain areas. The Deputy Labour Officer, Kalpetta is entrusted with such functions as conciliation, inspection of plantations,

and inspection under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. Table I gives particulars of the work of the District Labour Office, Kozhikode, during the period 1957-61.

One of the important steps taken by the Government to ensure the welfare of industrial workers is the fixation of minimum wages in important industries under the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act 1948. Minimum rates of wages have been fixed by Government in respect of the following industries in the Kozhikode District. (1) Rice mill, flour mill or dal mill, (2) Carpet making, (3) Tobacco including beedi, (4) Plantations, (5) Oil mills, (6) Local Authority, (7) Road construction and building operations, (8) Mica works, (9) Public motor transport, (10) Tanneries, (11) Stone breaking or stone crushing, (12) Cashew industry, (13) Cardamom plantation, (14) Timber industry, (15) Match industry, (16) Tile industry, (17) Shops & Establishments, (18) Printing Presses, (19) Coir industry and (20) Water transport.

Bonus is paid to certain classes of industrial workers. The details of the bonus paid in some of the industries in 1960 are given below.

	Name of Industry	*No. of workers benefited*	*Percentage of bonus*	*Amount of bonus*
1.	Plantations	15,222	6¼	Rs. 7,18,683.91
2.	Rice Mills	13	5	Rs. 206.61
3.	Match	38	5	Rs. 176.68
4.	Pharmaceuticals	326	Not known	Rs. 1,04,946.30
5.	Misc.	50	12½	Rs. 852.66

Satisfactory machinery has been evolved for the settlement of Labour disputes. In 1959-60 834 disputes arose out of which 738 were settled. Almost all the disputes were settled by conciliation and mediation. A few were settled by the parties themselves. In 1959-60 42 disputes were referred for adjudication and 4 for arbitration.

An Industrial Tribunal was set up at Kozhikode on April 12, 1958 with a view to catering to the needs of the erstwhile Malabar area. A statement showing the number of cases received and disposed off by the Tribunal during the peirod 1958-61 is given in Table II.

Table—I

Abstract of Work done by the Labour Department in the District

Year	No. of disputes enquired under the Industrial Disputes Act	No. of shops inspected	No. of appeals heard under the Madras Shops & Establishments Act	No. of plantations inspected	No. of enquiries made under the Maternity Benefit Act	No. of enquiries made under the Trade Unions Act	No. of enquiries made under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders Act)	No. of enquiries made under Payment of Wages Act
1957	1,870	1,300	30	60	15	80	15	72
1958	1,952	2,600	35	58	16	84	16	65
1959	1,886	4,767	13	83	76	63	13	169
1960	1,026	5,372	15	47	33	58	7	167
1961	1,357	6,591	12	35	16	46	9	94

Table—II

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CASES REFERRED AND DISPOSED BY THE INDUSTRIAL TRIBUNAL, KOZHIKODE DURING THE YEARS 1958-59, 1959-60 & 1960-61

Year	No. of disputes pending at the beginning of the year	No. of disputes received during the year			Total	No. of disputes disposed off during the year	Balance pending at the end of each year
		Referred by Government under		Complaints under Section 33 A of the I. D. Act			
		Section 10 (1)(d)	Section 10 A				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1958-59	12	147	..	5	164	73	91
1959-60	91	62	..	17	170	90	80
1960-61	80	67	5	23	175	96	79

The workers in this District also get the social security benefits that accrue from the provisions of the Maternity Benefit Act, Workmen's Compensation Act, and the Employment of Children Act. Detailed information regarding the maternity benefit paid to women workers in factories in the Kozhikode District under the provisions of the Kerala Maternity Benefit Act 1957 during the period 1958-60 is given below:

	Particulars	1958	1959	1960
1.	Total No. of female workers employed in factories submitting returns	5,477	6,931	6,308
2.	Total No. of female workers excluding children covered under the Maternity Act	4,108	3,836	5,443
3.	No. of claims accepted	20	438	443
4.	No. of Miscarriages	12	22	28
5.	Amount of maternity benefit paid (in Rs.)	656.48	36,461.18	35,436.42

It may be noted that women workers in Plantations, Textiles, Cashew, Coir, Match, Oil and Beedi industries are benefited by the provisions of the Kerala Maternity Benefit Act, 1957 in this District.

The Factories Act and the Plantation Labour Act provide for free medical facilities, labour welfare officers, creches, canteens, etc. There are fifty-three plantations in Kozhikode District coming within the purview of the Plantation Labour Act 1951. All resident plantation workers are provided with housing facilities at the rate of 8% per year in the estates in accordance with the rules. Canteens are provided in Arthala Estate, Talapoya Estate and Ripon Estate. In the canteens coffee, tea and snacks are served at concessional rate to the workers. Creches are provided in Perrangodda Tea Estate, Ripon Estate, Talapoya Estate, Arthala Estate and Pambra Estate. Free milk and light refreshments are supplied to children in the creches. Rest and tiffin rooms are provided in some of the plantations in the District. The employers are giving medical aid to their employees, but in certain estates it is not upto the standard prescribed in the Rules. Hospitals and Dispensaries are provided in seven estates under qualified medical staff. The employers who have not yet complied with the provisions of the Kerala Plantation Labour Rules are being subjected to the penal provisions under the Act. Primary

Schools are provided in four estates in the Kozhikode District. Educational facilities exist in most of the other estates. The majority of the estates are also provided with Radio sets for the workers. Moreover, arrangements are made for indoor and outdoor games in some establishments. It may be noted that similar amenities are provided in other major industries of the District like Tile, Timber, Printing Presses, etc.

The Employees State Insurance Scheme

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme benefits a section of the industrial labourers of the District. It was introduced in the Kozhikode-Feroke area in July 1959. The number of employees covered in the area is 13,000. As only factories employing more than 20 per cent and using power come now under the purview of the Employees State Insurance Act only the employees of such establishments are covered in this area. Under the provisions of the Act an insured employee is entitled to five kinds of benefit viz., the medical benefit, sickness benefit, maternity benefit, disablement benefit and dependents benefit. Of these medical benefit is rendered in kind and the remaining four benefits in the form of periodical cash payment. The State Government is responsible only for the provision of medical benefit. The administration of cash benefits at the rates prescribed by the Employees State Insurance Corporation is undertaken directly by the Corporation through its regional and local offices.

The arrangements for providing medical benefits in the Kozhikode area include five full time E.S.I. Dispensaries established at Kalathikunnu, Kallayi, Chungom, Iringallur and Cheruvannur and two Mobile Dispensaries, one operating in Kozhikode and the other in Meenchantha. 16 general beds are reserved for in-patient treatment in E.S.I. patients in the District Headquarters Hospital, Kozhikode, 8 maternity beds in Women's and Children's Hospital Kozhikode, and 13 T.B. beds in the K. V. Sanatorium, Mulakunnathukavu, Trichur for the exclusive use of E.S.I. patients in the Kozhikode area. The specialists attached to the Headquarters Hospital serve as part-time specialists under the scheme. In Kozhikode there is a specialist each in X-ray, Medicine, Surgery, E.N.T., T.B., Eye, Skin, Pathology and Gynaecology and Obstetrics. The statement on page 721 gives particulars of medical benefits received by insured persons in the Kozhikode-Feroke area in 1959-60.

Particulars of Medical Benefit Received under the E. S. I. Scheme (1959-60)

	Name of Dispensary	Total No. treated during the period	Total No. of operations performed	Total No. of patients hospitalised	Total No. of home visits made	Total No. of injury reports received	Total No. of certificates issued
1.	Mobile Dispensary, Route I	9,890	..	70	18	42	564
2.	Mobile Dispensary, Route II	8,093	64	8	..	16	469
3.	E. S. I. Dispensary, Chalapuram	34,787	231	60	182	9	3,342
4.	E. S. I. Dispensary, Chungom, Feroke	9,103	81	9	135	43	682
5.	E. S. I. Dispensary, Cheruvannur	19,282	36	33	..	95	1,477
6.	E. S. I. Dispensary, Kalathikunnu	19,360	134	56	334	60	809
7.	E. S. I. Dispensary, Iringallur	7,006	2	22	172	53	1,122
	Total	107,441	548	258	8[illegible]1	318	8,465

Employees Provident Fund Scheme.

The Employees' Provident Fund Scheme is also in operation in the Kozhikode District. 96 establishments with an employment strength of 25,608 employees have been brought under the coverage of the scheme. Of these two establishments engaged in general engineering, four in motor-transport industry and one in newspaper industry have their own Provident Fund Schemes which are more favourable to the employees than the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme. In their case the Employees' Provident Fund Organisation exercises supervisory control through inspections. The industry-wise distribution of employees brought under the coverage of the Provident Fund Scheme in the District in 1961 is given below:

	Industry.	*No. of establishments.*	*No. of employees.*
1.	Textiles	9	1991
2.	General Engineering	4	629
3.	Edible Oils & Fats	3	149
4.	Heavy & Fine Chemicals	4	475
5.	Newspaper establishments	4	515
6.	Rubber & Rubber Products	3	153
7.	Sanitary wares	1	60
8.	Tea factories|plantations	14	10074
9.	Tiles	17	5478
10.	Coffee Plantations	2	678
11.	Mixed Plantations	9	1012
12.	Rubber Plantations	11	3207
13.	Coffee Curing establishment	1	12
14.	Miscellaneous	1	15
15.	Motor Transport establishments	12	811
16.	Plywood industry	1	349
	Total	96	25608

There were 11,800 workers in this District who had not been covered by the Employees Provident Fund Scheme during the same period.

Old Age Pension Scheme.

It may be relevant in this connection to refer to the working of the Old Age Pension Scheme introduced in the District in 1960-61.[1] All destitute persons of 70 years of age and above who are domiciled and have resided in Kerala State for more than a year on the date of application for receipt of pension are entitled to the benefit of Old Age Pension under the Scheme. Applications for the grant of pension are submitted to the respective Tahsildars who verify the information furnished and forward them with their recommendations to the District Collector. The Collector in turn forwards the deserving applications to the Board of Revenue for the sanction of Old Age Pension. On receipt of orders from the Board of Revenue sanctioning the pension, the Collector disburses the amount to the pensioners by Money Order, the Money Order charges also being met by the Government. According to the information received in April 1962 the number of persons benefited by this Scheme in this District came to 842 of which 317 were men and 525 were women. The rate of pension is Rs. 15 per mensem. A sum of Rs. 1,10,222.70 had been spent on the Scheme in this District till April 1962.

PROHIBITION

The Kozhikode District has been dry since October 1, 1947 when the Madras Prohibition Act, 1937, was enforced by the Madras Government in the erstwhile Malabar District. The enforcement of Prohibition was in the beginning entrusted to a separate Prohibition Department which was constituted with the experienced officers of the Excise Department and newly recruited personnel. However, this arrangement did not work satisfactorily. The overwhelming body of opinion, both official and non-official, expressed itself in favour of the enforcement of prohibition being entrusted to the Police Department. The Madras Prohibition Enquiry Committee (1948) also recommended such a step. The Prohibition Department was however merged in the Police Department only with effect from 1st November 1955. Since then offences under the Prohibition Act have been made cognisable and all contraventions of the provisions of the Act registered in the same way as other cognisable offences under the provisions of the Indian Penal Code.

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1 Vide G. O. (P) 569|60 dated 24th November 1960.

The enforcement of Prohibition is a task which bristles with difficulties. The Police Department has been working earnestly with a view to making the enforcement of Prohibition effective. The Village Officers give all possible assistance to the Police in their work. However, the success of prohibition depends to a large extent on public co-operation. It has been a standing complaint that adequate public co-operation is wanting, and that the lack of such co-operation is one of the obstacles that stand in the way of the effective enforcement of prohibition. In order to ensure the maximum public co-operation in the task a District Prohibition Advisory Committee has been constituted with official and non-official members.[1] The official members of the Committee are the District Collector (Chairman), the District Superintendent of Police, Assistant Commissioner of Excise, District Medical Officer of Health, District Information Officer, and the District Industries Officer. A representative each of the Congress, the Communist Party, the P.S.P. and the Muslim League has also been included in the Committee. In addition, sitting M.L.As. and M. Ps. from the District are also invited to attend its meetings. Meetings of the Committee are convened every month and prohibition crimes discussed. Ameliorative and propaganda work is carried on by the Revenue Department to resettle the ex-tappers as well as to dissuade the public from consuming alcoholic liquor.

Since the merger there has been a marked increase in the total number of prohibition cases detected and the income realised from fines. A comparative statement of cases detected and fine amount collected during the period 1956-60 is given below.

Year.	*Total number of cases detected.*	*Total amount of fine realised.*
		Rs.
1956	1838	54,008
1957	1475	41,768
1958	2041	53,700
1959	2207	73,558
1960	2808	1,13,565

1 Vide G. O. MS. 1109 (Revenue 'G' Department) dated 19th November 1958.

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD COMMUNITIES

The Department of Harijan Welfare attends to the work connected with the Advancement of Backward Communities in the State. The District Welfare Officer, Kozhikode, is the head of the Department at the District level and he is assisted by a Taluk Welfare Officer in each Taluk. Further there is a Tribal Welfare Officer in charge of the Chingeri Extension Scheme at Kalpetta in South Wynad. A District Advisory Committee, with the District Collector as Chairman, gives advice to Government, on matters pertaining to the uplift of Harijans.

The Scheduled Castes and Tribes are the most backward sections of the community. Till a decade or two ago, the Harijan communities were considered as untouchables and some even as unapproachables. The Madras Removal of Civil Disabilities Act as amended by the Amending Act of 1947 and the Madras Temple Entry Act 1947 were the two main Acts placed on the statute book for the removal of the disabilities which had been imposed on the Harijans by social custom and usage. With the dawn of Independence Untouchability has been abolished by legislation, and those who practise it are now liable to punishment.

Providing facilities for the economic advancement of Harijans is one of the most important items of work undertaken by the Harijan Welfare Department. Most of the Harijans do not possess lands for house sites. Hence Government have taken steps for the assignment of lands and establishment of colonies and house sites for them. Twenty-five per cent of the Government lands is reserved for use by the public and the rest is assigned to the landless poor. Of the lands set apart for such assignment 25% is reserved for Harijans. In addition Government lands are transferred to the Department of Harijan Welfare for the purpose of establishing colonies. There are two colonies in the Kozhikode district, one at Chingeri and the other at Koothali. The Chingeri colony set up under the Chingeri Extension Scheme in 1957-58 is intended to settle a hundred families of Scheduled Tribes. Here nearly 800 acres of forest land have been placed at the disposal of the Department and 100 tiled houses have been constructed. A two mile jeep-able road has been laid out for providing access to the interior of Chingeri. A dam for water supply to 40 houses has also been constructed across the local stream. The total cost of

the Extension Scheme is Rs. 2 lakhs. The settlement of tribal families in the colony is in progress. Each family is being given 5 acres of land in addition to being supplied with agricultural implements, seeds, bulls, etc. The other colony at Koothali has been suspended for the present. There is a proposal to shift it to some other place.

Harijans in Kerala live mostly in thatched huts. They are too poor to attend to the timely re-thatching and repair works year by year, and hence the huts remain in a dilapidated condition for the latter part of the year, thus giving little protection to their occupants from the inclemancies of the weather. Hence the Government have formulated a scheme for providing tiled houses to them. The selection of the beneficiaries of the scheme is left to the District Advisory Committee. Both in 1957-58 and 1958-59 76 houses each were constructed in the Kozhikode District under the scheme. In 1957-58 10 houses, each costing Rs. 750 were constructed in the District under a centrally sponsored scheme.

In several centres and settlements of Harijans acute scarcity of drinking water is felt. Hence the Department has launched a scheme for the sinking of wells in such places. In 1958-59, 19 wells were sunk in this District.

Model Welfare Centres and Craft Centres have been set up for the economic uplift of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. There are two Model Welfare Centres in this District, one at Karulayi in Ernad Taluk and the other at Muthanga in South Wynad Taluk. Members of the Scheduled Tribes are taught cutting, tailoring and rattan work at these centres. The Craft Centres are located at Chingeri and Kavilampara. The former was started in 1959-60 and gives training in carpentry. The latter which was started in 1960-61 gives training both in carpentry and handloom weaving. Another craft centre is to be set up shortly at Nilambur under the Third Five Year Plan. Moreover, there is an Industrial Training Centre at Puduppadi started in 1960-61 where 25 Harijans are being given training in cutting and tailoring.

There are four Model Welfare Villages in this District. Started in 1960-61 exclusively for the benefit of the Scheduled Castes, they are located at Keraladeeswarapuram (Tirur Taluk), Elathur (Kozhikode Taluk), Kuravangad (Quilandi Taluk) and Azhiyur (Badagara Taluk). A sum of Rs. 41,223.82 was spent

in 1960-61 for their maintenance. In each of the Villages 28 Scheduled Caste students are being given training in weaving, carpentry, and rattan work.

The Department has also taken steps for the establishment of Co-operative Societies and Industrial Co-operatives, among the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. A full list of such Societies is given below:—(1) The Sambava Workers' Co-operative Cottage Industrial Society Ltd., Calicut, (2) The Payyoli Harijan Co-operative Society, (3) The Perambra Sambava Workers' Co-operative Society, (4) The Koothali Harijan Co-operative Society, (5) The Manjeri Harijan Co-operative Society, (6) The Nediyiruppu Harijan Co-operative Society, (7) The Parappanangadi Harijan Co-operative Society, (8) The Chingeri Tribal Co-operative Society, (9) The Muthanga Forest Co-operative Society and (10) The Karulayi Forest Co-operative Society.

One of the most important activities undertaken by the Department for the advancement of Harijans is the promotion of education among them. In 1960-61 a sum of Rs. 12,480 was spent for giving Scholarships, Stipends and other educational concessions for 1376 tribal students studying in the Upper Primary, Secondary and Training Schools in the District. During the same period a sum of Rs. 3,32,873.51 was spent for the benefit of 34463 Scheduled Caste students undergoing the same courses of studies. Moreover, a sum of Rs. 11,25,885.96 was spent in 1960-61 for giving educational concessions for Scheduled Caste students undergoing post-Matriculation studies.

The Department of Harijan Welfare also maintains special schools for the education of Scheduled Castes and Tribes. There are six Residential Schools and two non-Residential Schools for tribal children in this District. They are located at Chedleth, Sultan's Battery, Kalpetta, Vayittiri, Nilambur, Kaniyambetta, Muthanga and Edakara. The strength of each school is 30. The students studying in the Residential Schools are given free boarding and lodging. Their requirements of books and dress are also met by the Department. Each Residential school is under the charge of a Senior Basic trained Teacher-cum—Warden. A sum of Rs. 49,452.09 was spent for these schools in 1960-61. There is a proposal for the conversion of one Tribal School into a Residential Basic School in 1961-62.

There are also proposals for opening new Tribal Schools at Nedingayam in Nilambur in Ernad Taluk and Tiruvambadi in Kozhikode Taluk. In addition to the Tribal Schools there are 24 Welfare Schools in this District. They are located at (1) Ayinikad, (2) Chathamangalam, (3) Chulliyode, (4) Feroke, (5) Irimbiliyam, (6) Kakkavayal, (7) Kolagappara, (8) Kavunthara, (9) Kolakkad, (10) Munderi, (11) Nanminda, (12) Paimbra, (13) Palath, (14) Peruvallur, (15) Purathur, (16) Thazhecode, (17) Thurayur, (18) Trikkulam, (19) Vengappally, (20) Velliyode, (21) Valayam, (22) Perambra, (23) Changaroth and (24) Nediyirippu. In all these schools Harijan students are given education free of cost. They are also given free mid-day meals by the Government. Moreover, they are given free clothing and a lump-sum grant for the purchase of books every year. A sum of Rs. 72,857.34 was spent on the maintenance of the Welfare Schools in 1960-61.

There are 14 Hostels in this District maintained by the Harijan Welfare Department for the benefit of Harijan students. They are the following: (1) Government Boys' Hostel, Kozhikode, (2) Government Girls' Hostel, Kozhikode, (3) Government Boys' Hostel, Badagara, (4) Government Boys' Hostel, Nilambur, (5) Government Boys' Hostel, Malappuram, (6) Government Girls' Hostel, Malappuram, (7) Government Girls' Hostel, Manjeri, (8) Government Boys' Hostel, Wandur, (9) Government Boys' Hostel, Parappanangadi, (10) Government Boys' Hostel, Quilandi, (11) Government Boys' Hostel, Tirur, (12) Government Boys' Hostel, Tamarasseri, (13) Government Boys' Hostel, Perambra, (14) Government Boys' Hostel, Sultan's Battery. In all these hostels the inmates are given free boarding and lodging. While in the Government Boys' Hostel, at Kozhikode there is provision for the accommodation of 50 students, in all other Hostels there is provision for the accommodation of 30 students each. The total amount spent in 1960-61 for the maintenance of the Hostels was Rs. 99,983.89. Moreover the Department is also giving boarding grants at the rate of Rs. 18 per mensem to the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students residing in the following subsidised Hostels. (1) Adivasi Hostel, Kalpetta, (2) Kanya Gurukulam, Kottapadi, (3) Arnadan Balika Sadan, Karulayi, (4) Unnikrishna Memorial Balika Sadan, Quilandi, (5) Gandhi Sadan, Hostel, Pakkanarpuram, Payyoli, (6) Kasturba Balika Sadan, Putiyara, (7) Nayanar Balika Sadan, Eranhipalam, (8) The

Poor Home, Society, West Hill, (9) Sree Ramakrishna Mission Kallayi, (10) Gandhi Sadan, Nediyiruppu. In 1960-61 a sum of Rs. 10,616.24 was spent on grants to 64 tribal boarders residing in these hostels. During the same period a sum of Rs. 33,899.59 was given as grants to 194 Scheduled Caste boarders living in these hostels.

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS AND TRUSTS

The Hindu Religious & Charitable Endowments Department.

The Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Department set up in accordance with the provisions of the Madras Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Act XIX of 1951 as amended by the Madras Act XXVII of 1954 and the rules framed thereunder is in charge of the administration and control of the Hindu religious and charitable institutions and endowments in the erstwhile Malabar area of the State. The Act creates a hierarchy of Officers, the Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioner and the Assistant Commissioners and entrusts the administration of the endowments to them. In addition it provides for the establishment of Area Committees under the chairmanship of the Assistant Commissioners. Under the provisions of H.R.C.E. Act the Commissioner exercises general superintendence and control over the administration of all religious endowments. The Area Committees presided over by the Assistant Commissioners are invested with jurisdiction over the temples and specific endowments attached to them with an annual income of less than Rs. 20,000. The Act also requires the trustees of every religious institution to keep regular accounts of all receipts and disbursements. Under section 76(i) of the Act all religious institutions are required to pay to the Government a contribution not exceeding 5% out of their income for the services rendered by the Government. Further the Act enables the Commissioner to utilise the surplus funds of the religious institutions for educational and charitable purposes also.

The Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Department in Kerala functions through a Commissioner, a Deputy Commissioner, two Assistant Commissioners, and two Area Committees appointed by the Government. The post of the Commissioner is held by the Second Member of the Board of Revenue and his headquarters is at Trivandrum. The Deputy

Commissioner has his office at Kozhikode. The Assistant Commissioners have their offices at Palghat and Tellicherry respectively, and the Area Committees are presided over by them.

The Hindu religious and charitable endowments in the Kozhikode District come within the jurisdiction of both the Assistant Commissioners. The Assistant Commissioner, Palghat, has jurisdiction over the Ernad, Kozhikode and Tirur Taluks, while the Assistant Commissioner, Tellicherry, has jurisdiction over the South Wynad, Quilandi, and Badagara Taluks. Under the Assistant Commissioners there are Inspectors whose duty it is to inspect the religious institutions within their respective jurisdictions. There are two Inspectors in this District, one with headquarters at Badagara and the other at Kozhikode.

The Department of Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments has to face certain major difficulties in regard to the administration of the religious institutions and endowments under the provisions of the Act. The vast majority of the temples have hereditary trustees and their attitude towards the Department has been hostile. Most of the trustees are rich *jenmies* and the temples which they are holding as trusts have substantial properties and income. Before the enactment of the Act they were managing the temples without any control over them. They feel that the Act has made in-roads into their vested interests. Consequently they have always tried their best to resist any kind of interference from the Department which affects their interests. In many cases writ petitions were filed by them before the High Court either to get back the management of the temples or to resist the interference of the Department. The pronouncements of the Madras High Court and the Supreme Court equating "trusteeship" with "property" have considerably curtailed the power of interference by the Department in the administration of religious institutions, and emboldened the trustees to ignore the provisions of the Act and defy the instructions of the Department. Another difficulty facing the H.R.C.E. Department arises from the poor collection of rent and *Michavaram* by the religious institutions consequent upon the various measures taken by the Government to protect the rights of the tenants. This has often resulted in the withholding of the

payment of the salaries of the temple staff and the departmental dues by the temples and has also made it difficult for most of the temples to conduct even the daily rituals without break. The temples have even been compelled to fall back on their assets or to raise funds from movable properties, wherever possible, to meet the situation.

Wakf Board.

Mention may be made in this connection of the arrangements made for the control of Muslim religious and charitable institutions in this District. There are a large number of Mosques, Derkhas, Imambras, Orphanages, Poor Homes, Muzaffarkhanas, Madrasas, and such other Muslim institutions of an educational and religious character which exist in the different parts of the District.[1] These are supported by specific endowments made for the purpose and are commonly known as Wakf properties.[2] In order to ensure that such endowments are used entirely for the purpose for which they have been made and to make the necessary arrangements for the proper maintenance and administration of the religious and charitable institutions of the Muslims, the Indian Parliament passed the Wakf Act of 1954 which as modified up to 1st March 1960 has been made applicable to the State of Kerala. The Kerala *Wakf* Board was constituted by the State Government on October 1, 1960 in pursuance of the provisions of the Wakf Act. The Board which consists of 11 members functions with its headquarters at Ernakulam and exercises general supervision and control over all *Wakf* properties in Kerala. There is a District Sub Committee of the Board functioning in the Kozhikode District for the proper administration and protection of *Wakf* properties.

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1. According to the *Kerala Muslim Directory* (1960) there are 2462 mosques in the Kozhikode District.

2. *Wakf* literally means detention, stopping or tying up. It is unconditional and permanent dedication of property with implied detention in the ownership of God in such a manner that the right of the owner is extinguished and its profits revert to, or are applied for the benefit of mankind except for the purposes prohibited by Islam. *Wakf* can be made exclusively for religious or charitable purposes or for the maintenance and support of one's descendants either as the sole beneficiaries or in conjunction with other charities.

District S.S.A. Board.

The District Soldiers, Sailors and Airmen's (S.S.A.) Board, Kozhikode, is a quasi-Government body that has been set up as a branch of the Kerala State S.S.A. Board. Its sole function is to work for the welfare of Ex-Servicemen and families of the deceased and serving military personnel. The Board is being maintained out of the contributions made by the Central and State Governments on a 50: 50 basis. Government have declared the funds of the Board as local funds under Article 705 (b) of the Travancore Financial and Account Code. The District S.S.A. Board therefore functions as a local body, and the audit of its accounts is done by the staff of the Department of Local Fund Accounts.

The District S.S.A. Board, Kozhikode, is under the immediate charge of a Secretary who has been invested with the status of a District officer in the discharge of his duties. The District Collector is the President of the Board and the Recruiting Officer of the area or his nominee its Vice-President. The District Superintendent of Police, Kozhikode, the District Employment Officer, Kozhikode, the Chairman of the Calicut Municipality and the District Educational Officer, Kozhikode, are the official members of the Board. Among the non-official members are three ex-servicemen of the District to represent the Army, the Navy and the Air Force respectively besides a leading lawyer, an eminent medical practitioner, and a prominent businessman of the District. The Secretary of the Board acts as a connecting link between the high officials of the Defence Department and the Ex-servicemen in general in regard to the settlement of pension cases, financial grants etc.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE & VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

REPRESENTATION OF THE DISTRICT IN THE STATE AND THE UNION LEGISLATURES

After the formation of Kerala State the Kozhikode District sent its representatives for the first time to the Kerala Legislature in the general elections of 1957. There are 3 Parliamentary constituencies and 18 Assembly constituencies in this District. The three Parliamentary constituencies are single member constituencies. Of the 18 Assembly constituencies 16 are single member and 2 double member constituencies. The Parliamentary constituencies are Kozhikode, Manjeri and Badagara. The single member Assembly constituencies are Tirur, Kuttipuram, Tanur, Tirurangadi, Malappuram, Kondotti, Kozhikode I, Kozhikode II, Chevayur, Kunnamangalam, Koduvalli, Balusseri, Quilandi, Perambra, Badagara and Nadapuram. The double member constituencies are Manjeri and Wynad. The latter constituency includes also North Wynad which forms part of the Cannanore District. It may be noted in this connection that of the 12 seats reserved for Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the Kerala Legislature only one is allotted to the Scheduled Tribes as such and that the Wynad Constituency returns this solitary Scheduled Tribe representative. Thus the number of members of the Legislative Assembly elected by the voters of Kozhikode District including North Wynad is 20.

Political Parties and Organisations.

Of the All India Parties the Indian National Congress, the Communist Party of India and the Praja Socialist Party have their well established units in the District. The Muslim League which has the status of a State Party is firmly entrenched in this District, which has a sizeable Muslim population. A study of the election results of 1957, 1960 and 1962 will show the relative hold of these political parties in the District. In 1957 an election alliance was entered into between

the Muslim League and the Praja Socialist Party, and there was a triangular fight between the P.S.P.—Muslim League alliance, the Congress and the Communist Party. The P.S.P.—League alliance won 9 seats—the Muslim League 7 and the P.S.P. 2. The Congress Party won 8 seats and the remaining 3 went to the Communist Party. The Parliamentary seats were equally shared by the Congress, the P.S.P. and the Muslim League. In 1957 the strength of the electorate was 12,58,550 and a little above 60% of the voters went to the polls.

In the elections of 1960 there was a straight fight between the Communist Party on the one hand and the United Front consisting of the Congress, the P.S.P. and the Muslim League on the other. The propaganda machinery of all the parties was more active in 1960 than in the previous election and all the seats were keenly contested. Of the 20 seats from the District the United Front captured 19 and the Communist Party got only one seat. One remarkable feature of the elections of 1960 was that no candidate supported either by the United Front or by the Communist Party lost his deposit in the Kozhikode District, while the position was very much different in 1957.[1] In 1957 the Congress party secured more than 39% of the total votes polled and annexed eight seats. But in 1960 the Communist Party, which secured a little more than 35% of the total votes polled won only one seat. By 1960 the polarisation of political forces in the District was so complete that out of 41 candidates contesting the 20 seats 20 belonged to the United Front and 20 to the Communist Party. The only candidate put up by the Jan Sangh was defeated and he also forfeited his deposit. The strength of the electorate was 1,313,065 and a little above 80% of the voters of the District went to the polls. The table in the next page gives the detailed results of the elections of 1957 and 1960.

In the General Elections held to the Lok Sabha in February, 1962 the Muslim League won two seats from this District viz., Manjeri and Kozhikode, and an Independent candidate supported by the Communist Party and the Muslim League won the third viz., Badagara. In the Manjeri and Kozhikode constituencies the Communist candidates were the nearest rivals to the successful Muslim League candidates, and the

1. In the 1957 elections 6 candidates lost their deposits.

STATEMENT OF THE RESULTS OF THE GENERAL ELECTIONS OF 1957 AND 1960

Name of Party	House of People			State Legislature					
	No. of seats contested	No. of seats won	No. of votes polled	No. of seats contested	No. of seats won	No. of seats contested	No. of seats won	No. of votes polled	
	1957	1957	1957	1957	1957	1960	1960	1957	1960
Indian National Congress	3	1	274920	20	8	8	7	351954	380919
Praja Socialist Party	1	1	111425	6	2	4	4	88660	143608
Communist Party of India	3	Nil	218076	12	3	10	1	155063	458044
Muslim League *	2	1	189327	11	7	8	8	202824	287268
Jan Sangh	..	Nil	Nil	..	Nil	1	Nil	Nil	1224
Independents **	..	Nil	Nil	10	Nil	..	Nil	111510	Nil
Total	9	3	793748	59	20	41	20	910011	1281063

* It may be interesting to point out that the strength of the Muslim League in the Assembly after the 1957 elections was only 8 and the present strength i. e. after 1960 elections is 11. The bulk of the members of the Muslim League party in the State Assembly come from the Kozhikode District.

** It may be noted that the number of votes polled in favour of the Independents in 1957 was 111510 and that this is a high figure. This is due to the fact that some of the Independents were Communist sponsored and the Communist votes went to them.

Congress candidates got only the third place. In the Badagara constituency where there was a straight contest between the Independent and a P.S.P. candidate, the latter was defeated.

NEWSPAPERS

The Kozhikode District occupies a prominent place in the history of Malayalam journalism. The origin of journalism in the District may be traced back to the eighties of the last century. The *Kerala Patrika* (1884) seems to have been the earliest newspaper published from Kozhikode. *Keralam*, *Kerala Sanchari*, and *Bharathivilasam* were among the other newspapers published from Kozhikode before 1893. To this list of early newspapers of the District may be added *Manorama* and *Kerala Chandrika*. Some denominational newspapers devoted to the cause of the advancement of Muslims and Thiyyas were also published, but most of them ceased publication early enough. The last 3 decades witnessed a steady growth of Malayalam journalism and the Malayalam press attained a high standard. This period was prolific in the output of dailies, weeklies and periodicals.

The number of dailies in Kozhikode at present is six and they are all published from Calicut city. These dailies are the *Mathrubhoomi*, the *Chandrika*, the *Desabhimani*, the *Dinaprabha*, the *Pradeepam* and the *Dinavartha*. The *Mathrubhoomi* was first published in 1923 during the period of the Non-co-operation movement and it faithfully supported the Freedom Movement under Gandhiji in all its stages. It is being managed as a Pubilc Limited Company. It is a National Newspaper in Malayalam and its objective is to give comprehensive factual news of national, provincial, and world events, to shape and direct public opinion on proper lines and to keep people informed of modern developments in all walks of life, maintaining all the while the best traditions of journalism. The *Mathrubhoomi* has a comprehensive News Service. It subscribes to the B Class service of the Press Trust of India. It has editorial offices in Trivandrum and Ernakulam and has hired out special teleprinter lines between Trivandrum and Calicut and Ernakulam and Calicut. It has its own correspondents throughout Kerala and in Delhi, Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and other big cities. It has in all four different editions. The *Mathrubhoomi* now enjoys the second largest circulation among the Malayalam dailies. The average net

daily sale was 78,405 copies for the second half of 1960, as per the certificate of circulation issued by the Audit Bureau of Circulations, Ltd., Bombay. In the Kozhikode District the daily circulation of the newspaper come to 22,376. About 6,000 copies are sold outside Kerala. The *Chandrika* was started as a Weekly in 1935 at Calicut and in 1939 it became a daily. It is also managed as a Public Limited Company. Its objective is to fight for the cause of the minorities in general and the Muslims in particular. It is a semi-official organ of the Indian Union Muslim League. The average daily circulation of the *Chandrika* in 1959 was 11,425 copies including 492 free copies. In the Kozhikode District it had a circulation of 4097 copies. The *Deshabhimani* was first published in 1942 as a Weekly, and in 1945 it was converted into a daily. A corporate management is running it. It is an organ of the Communist Party of India. The average daily circulation of the *Deshabhimani* is about 34,000 copies. It enjoys its widest circulation in the Malabar area of the State. No district-wise break-up figures of circulation are available. The *Pradeepam* was started in 1957 in Calicut. It is an independent national daily. It is seen from the report received in 1959 that the average daily circulation of *Pradeepam* in 1958 was 14331 copies. The daily average circulation of *Pradeepam* in the district was 8,000 copies. The *Dinaprabha* was established in 1958 at Calicut. It is managed as a private Limited Company. It is an independent national daily with particular concern for the interests of the backward communities. The average daily circulation of the paper in 1959 is stated to have been 10,858 copies, the figure for the District alone being 3,584 copies per day. The *Dinavartha* started publication in 1960 as an evening daily, and its circulation during the year came to 1442 copies.

Besides the six dailies of Calicut mentioned above, newspapers published from outside Kozhikode have also their circulation here. The *Kerala Kaumudi* and *Kerala Janatha* published from Trivandrum and the *Malayala Manorama* published from Kottayam deserve mention in this connection, but their circulation is not considerable. It is seen that the *Manorama* had an average circulation of about 900 copies in 1959. English dailies like the *Hindu* and the *Indian Express* published from Madras State have wide circulation in the District. No English daily is published from the District.

Periodicals.

There are also a large number of weeklies, fortnightlies monthlies etc. published from Kozhikode. According to the *Report of the Registrar of Newspapers for India* (1961) the Weeklies published from Kozhikode are the *Kerala Law Journal* (1956), the *Chandrika* (1950), the *Kesari* (1951), the *Krishikaran* (1952), the *Mathrubhoomi* (1932) the *Prapancham* (1958), the *Purogati* (1959), and the *Prakasam* (1956), the fortnightlies are the *Yugaprabhat* (1956), the *Bhoodanakahalam* (1954)[1] and the *Yuvakahalam* (1959) and the monthlies are the *Freedom* (1958) the *Message* (1959), the *Almanar* (1950), the *Kalamala* (1956), the *Manimuzhakam* (1959) the *Manorama*, the *Parasparasahayi* (1924), the *Subulussaalam* (1959) and the *Vydian* (1960). The *Industrialist* (1959) and the *Mu-Allim* (1959) are two quarterlies published from the District. Among the annuals may be mentioned the *Kerala Foot-ball* (1958) and the magazines published by some of the Colleges in the District.[2] Of the publications mentioned above, the *Kerala Law Journal*, the *Freedom*, the *Message* and the *Industrialist* are published in English while *Prakasam* is a bilingual fortnightly in English and Malayalam. All others are published in Malayalam. Among the periodicals published from outside the district which command a wide circulation in Kozhikode may be mentioned the *Malayala Manorama* and the *Janayugom* Weeklies.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

There are a large number of Voluntary Social Service Organisations functioning in the Kozhikode District and particularly in Calicut city. We may briefly describe the activities of the most important of these organisations.

The Poor Home Society, Kozhikode.

The Society was registered in 1937 as a charitable society with the objective of establishing and maintaining homes or asylums for persons who are unable to earn their livelihood by reason of physical defect, infirmity or disease. At West

1. According to the information furnished by the Editor of the *Bhooodana Kahalam*, in July 1961 it is a weekly published by the Kerala Sarvodaya Prasidheekarana Samithi, Calicut.
2. The figures within brackets in this section indicate the year of establishment of the periodicals as given in the Annual Report of the Registrar of Newspapers (1961).

Hill the Society runs (1) the Home for the disabled destitutes (opened in 1937) (2) the Home for destitute women and children (opened in 1942) (3) a Foundling Home (opened in 1947) and (4) a Hospital (opened in 1955). At Chevayur it conducts a Home for Leper destitutes. At Marikunnu it had been running the following institutions:—(1) Junior Certified School for boys, (2) Junior and Senior Certified Schools for girls, (3) Rescue Home Shelter, (4) Orphanage for Boys and Girls, (5) Higher Elementary School up to VIII Standard and (6) Vocational training classes. The total number of destitute inmates in the Society's several Homes on 1st April 1957 was 1180. In 1957-58 the management of the Certified Schools was taken over from the Poor Home Society and entrusted to a committee constituted by the Government. But in April 1960 it was again transferred to the Society. The Poor Home Society has done commendable service in the field of social uplift work in Calicut city. Many an aged, infirm and crippled destitute is given protection for life in its Homes. Many vagrant children have been rescued from streets and undesirable surroundings and trained as good citizens. Parents have been traced in the case of run-aways, and destitute girls given in marriage. All necessities of life are provided in the Society's Homes and none of the inmates is allowed to wander about in the streets or beg for alms. The number of members of the Poor Home Society in 1958-59 was 470. During the same period it had an asset of Rs. 1,88,037 and it incurred an expenditure of Rs. 1,23,465. The expenses of the Society are met from donations, subscriptions of its members, government grants, and grants from Central Social Welfare Board and local bodies. The Society is managed by a Committee consisting of representatives of the Government and the Calicut Municipality, life-members, and Patrons who include almost all of the prominent personalities in the life of the Kozhikode District.

J.D.T. Islam Orphanage.

The J.D.T. Islam Orphanage was started in 1922 for the purpose of rehabilitating the large number of Muslim children who were orphaned during the Malabar rebellion of 1921. The Orphanage is situated about five miles east of Calicut city. Since its establishment it has rendered commendable service to the Muslim community. Crafts like Tailoring and Embroidery, Book-binding and Coir work are taught in the Orphanage

and Muslim children are given religious instruction. A Homoeopathic Dispensary is run for the benefit of the children and the public. In 1958-59 the Upper Primary School attached to the J.D.T. Islam Orphanage was upgraded to a Secondary School. In that year the School had a strength of 903 boys and girls. The number of children brought up and educated by the institution in 1959-60 was 495. The administration of the J.D.T. Islam Orphanage is carried on by the governing body elected by the general body at its annual meetings. In 1959-60 the assets of the institution stood at Rs. 1,17,841, income at Rs. 1,03,043 and expenditure at Rs. 95,382. Its expenses are met from subscriptions, donations, charity box collections, *wakf* property income,and grants from the State Government and the Central Social Welfare Board.

The Mukkam Muslim Orphanage.

Established in 1956 the Mukkam Muslim Orphanage endeavours to protect the interests of Muslim Orphans. It is situated 13 miles to the east of Calicut. It conducts a Lower Primary School, a *Madrasa* for giving religious instruction, a Match Factory under the name of M.M. Orphanage Match Works and a Library called the M.M. Orphanage Library. The inmates of the Orphanage are given practical training in crafts with a view to enabling them to earn their bread and later live on their own after leaving the institution. The number of inmates in the Mukkam Muslim Orphanage in 1960 was 215 and the assets of the institution came to about Rs. 1,50,000. The income and expenditure for the year came to Rs. 40,000 and 45,000 respectively. The institution is financed by the Kerala Government and the general public.

Basel Evangelical Mission Girls' Orphanage.

This is situated in Chombala in the Badagara Taluk. In the report furnished by the authorities of the Institution in 1959 it is stated that it was established 90 years ago. Its objective is to help poor and deserving orphaned girls belonging to the Christian community and give them education in order to make them useful members of the society. There is an Upper Primary School attached to the Orphanage. The number of girls in the Orphanage in 1959-60 was 76. One-third of the expenses are met by the Government and the rest by the Mission Management. The contribution of the Mission Management comes to about Rs. 11,000 a year. The Orphanage

has done good work during these years by helping several poor and deserving Christian girls to make a career for themselves as teachers, nurses etc.

Sri Sarada Sangham.

Established in 1955, this is located in the Cheruvannur Village of Kozhikode Taluk. The main objective of the Sangham is to spread the teachings and ideals of Sri Ramakrishna and particularly of Sri Sarada Devi. The Sangham conducts *Bhajans*, in the different parts of Calicut city. The members of the Sangham visit patients in the hospitals to give them mental solace. Clothes and chappals are distributed among the inmates of the Leper Asylum. The Sangham also runs a High School where about 600 boys and 300 girls are studying. Attached to the High School, there is a Students' Home which accommodates 75 boys. More than 30 girls are given accommodation in the Sarada Mandir. The management of the Sangham and its affairs is vested in a Governing Body consisting of not les than eleven members. The number of members of the Sangham in 1960 was 55. The members meet in the Sarada Mandir once a month. In 1959-60 the Sangham had assets worth Rs. 68,889.

The Ramakrishna Mission, Sevashrama.

The Ramakrishna Mission Sevashrama was established at Kallayi near Calicut in 1931. The Sevashrama runs a Secondary School, a Lower Primary School, and a Students' Home for Boys. In 1958-59 there were 803 students in the Secondary School while in the Primary School there were 439 students. During the same period there were 61 inmates in the Students' Home. These inmates live here under the affectionate care and guidance of the monks of the Ramakrishna Order. No distinction is shown in the Home between paying and free boarders. A Charitable Dispensary is run by the Sevashrama under two qualified doctors. The benefit of free consultation and medical aid is given to about 200 patients everyday. The State Government gives an annual grant of Rs. 1,200 to the Dispensary. An annual contribution of Rs. 400 is given also by the Calicut Municipality. Milk is distributed to about 400 children daily. The cultural activities of the Sevashram include discourses on the teachings of Sri Ramakrishna and Swami Vivekananda, celebration of festivals like

Navarathri, and the conduct of daily *pujas* and *bhajans*. In 1958-59 the Sevashrama had assets worth Rs. 2,89,956, its income and expenditure being Rs. 71,122 and Rs. 64,001 respectively.

The Gandhi Smarak Nidhi

The Gandhi Smarak Nidhi which commenced its activities in this District in 1954 runs an experimental centre for development work in a *Gramadan* area at Niramallur in Badagara Taluk. Improvement of agriculture, organization of Khadi and village industries, adult education and the management of a Nursery School, and Tailoring school for girls are among the activities carried on under the auspices of the centre. The Nidhi has appointed three full time workers and provided about Rs. 12,000 and this amount is supplemented by contributions from the local public and the government. A major Gandhi Tattwa Prachar Centre is also functioning at Calicut under the auspices of the Nidhi. It organizes study classes, lectures, camps, conferences, seminars etc. for those interested in understanding the Gandhian ideology and methodology of work.

The Malabar Education Society, Calicut.

The Malabar Education Society, Calicut established in 1926 is registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860. Its objects are the promotion and advancement of education on progressive lines, award of scholarships to poor and deserving students, maintenance of educational institutions, libraries, reading rooms, hospitals, boarding houses etc. The affairs of the Society are managed by a governing body of seven members. The Society was till recently conducting five High Schools and 13 Primary Schools. The High Schools have now been taken over by the Kerala Government. Of the 13 Primary Schools four were transferred to the respective Headmasters and the remaining are still under the Society. In 1960-61 the assets of the Society were worth about Rs. 1,50,000. The annual income comes to about Rs. 20,500. It is derived from the rent payable by Government for buildings taken over and the annual grants

available to the Primary Schools. The approximate annual expenditure of the Society is given below.

Approximate Expenditure.

	Rs.
Rent paid	5,600
Taxes on Buildings (Municipal)	2,000
Repair (Minor)	2,600
Improvement (Major repairs) to buildings	5,400
Office establishment	2,400
Interest on Mortgages	2,500
Total	20,500

The Apostolic Carmel Education Society, Kozhikode

The Society was established in 1957 with the object of promoting the spread of knowledge by establishing Schools, Colleges and Vocational Training institutions. It is entrusted with the responsibility of managing the existing Schools and Colleges of Kerala conducted by the Religious Congregation of the Apostolic Carmel, Mangalore. From the report received in 1961 it is seen that there were eleven Schools, two training institutions and one College conducted by the Society. In 1960-61 the income of the Society was Rs. 4,02,688 and expenditure Rs. 4,22,139. Though it receives aid from the Government a major portion of its expenditure is met by the Christian Mission.

The Malabar Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals

The Society has been functioning in Calicut city since 1928. A branch has been established also at Badagara in order to extend its activities. The affairs of the Society are governed by an Executive committee consisting of 15 members and a few office bearers. In 1959 there were 38 life members, 233 ordinary members, and 5 honorary members in the Society. The expenses are met from subscriptions and donations from members, compensation in lieu of magisterial fine, and government grants. The income of the Society in 1958-59 came to about Rs. 6,000. Since its inception it has done much to prevent cruelty to animals. In 1958-59 alone the Society charged 138 cases in Calicut city and 22 in Badagara and in more than 90% of the cases the accused were convicted.

Guild of Service

The Calicut branch of the Guild of Service is situated in Panniyankara. It was established in 1947 with the object of helping the poor and needy without distinction of caste or creed. It gets donations from the public and grants from the Central Social Welfare Board and the State Government. It runs a Maternity Home, a Children's Park and a Children's Home. The Guild of Service has a scheme for establishing an After-care Home for persons cured of leprosy.

Social Welfare Board District Project Implementing Committee

With the formation of Kerala State the previous Project Implementing Committee of Malabar was dissolved and a separate Committee was formed for the Kozhikode District. The activities of the Committee consist of Balwadi and Literacy classes, craft instruction, milk distribution, noon-feeding, social education, medical service etc. Literacy classes are held at the centres at Kariambadi and Naikatty, at the former for Muslim women, and at the latter for the tribal women. Spinning and needle-work are taught. *Kanjee* (gruel) is given to the children attending the Balwadi classes at the centres. Free maternity aid and hospital amenities are given to the people of the backward areas of Wynad. The maternity assistants had been visiting houses and attending to labour cases and giving the required assistance to women. Grama Sevikas had been visiting houses, covering about four houses per day within their area.

Red Cross Society

The District Branch of the Indian Red Cross Society was formed in 1957. A membership campaign was organised immediately after the formation of the Kozhikode Branch. Attempts were also made to form Junior Red Cross groups in all the schools and colleges. Their main activities consist of supply of books to the poor students, contribution to the Mid-day meal fund, rendering first aid, special medical aid to the deserving pupils etc. Clothes, sweets and milk are supplied by the Red Cross to patients in Government Hospitals. Milk powder is regularly supplied to several institutions for distribution among the deserving children and mothers.

Bharat Sevak Samaj

The Kozhikode District branch of the Bharat Sevak Samaj has been doing useful work in the field of Voluntary Social Service ever since its inception in 1954. It has two town units,

one at Calicut and the other at Badagara. Block units have been formed in Balusseri, Koduvalli, Thodannur, Wandur, Kondotti, Manjeri, Kunnamangalam and Tuneri. In the Blocks village units have also been organised. Balawadi and Nursery classes are run under the auspices of some of the units. Sports Clubs, Arts Clubs, Adult Education classes, Plan publicity campaigns, anti-liquor campaign, Balasamajams, Reading Rooms, Libraries, and film shows are orgnised in many of the villages. The Samaj has taken keen interest in Rural Hygiene and Sanitation. Public Co-operation Committees formed by the Samaj have been of great help in propagating the message of the Samaj and the Five Year Plan and enlisting public co-operation in the developmental activities of the Government. Milk distribution to the poor and needy children is also conducted by the B.S.S. It has also arranged worker's conferences in which leaders of the B.S.S., Government Officers and labour leaders participate. Students from 29 High Schools, 4 Colleges and 2 Training Schools participated in the various camps conducted by the B.S.S. during the Christmas Holidays of 1960. The State Board of the B.S.S. has under consideration a proposal for constructing a Night Shelter in Calicut city.

The B.S.S. has three major centres in the Kozhikode District viz. (1) Public co-operation centre, Wandur, (2) Pilot Welfare Extension Project, Chalapuram and (3) Students Service Project, Pallikandy. The Wandur Public Co-operation centre has organised Young Farmers' Clubs, Public Co-operation Committees for the Plan schemes, milk distribution centres, nursery classes etc. The Wandur centre was declared the best one in Kerala for achieving public co-operation for the timely implementation of the plan schemes. The Chalapuram Extension Project was inaugurated in 1959. It has one community organiser, two craft teachers, one nursery teacher, one Aya and one Creche attendant on its staff. This project has organised games, discussions and debates. A *Kalari* (gymnasium) is also functioning here. The Pallikandy slum service project which was opened in 1960 is located in an area where poor and illiterate people live. The project has worked as an eye opener to the people of the area. Many associations for the welfare of children, women and even men are organised under this project. It has collected from the generous public a sum of Rs. 3,000 for constructing a biulding to house the project.

Y. M. C. A. Calicut

The Calicut Y.M.C.A. was started in 1892. It is one of the 31 Y.M.C.As. in India approved for assistance by the International Committee and it has recently undertaken a building project costing about one lakh of Rupees. The Calicut Y.M.C.A. has undertaken this project in order to solve the acute housing problem which has arisen in Calicut as a result of the enormous increase in the number of students and employees in the city. It has a long record of service which includes provision of hostel facilities, recreation activities, educational work etc. In 1960 it had a membership of 369 and its income amounted to Rs. 12,000 and expenditure came to Rs. 11,968.

MAHILA SAMAJAMS

Mahila Samajams or Ladies' Associations have been organised in several parts of the District. Their activities follow a common pattern. Needle-work, weaving, mat weaving, toy making and such other crafts are taught under their auspices. They also organise study classes, discussions and symposia. The record of service rendered by the Mahila Samajams also includes the encouragement of Fine Arts, Music, Dance, etc. Their membership is open to all women irrespective of caste, creed or colour. The expenses of almost all of them are met from public contributions, grants from the Social Welfare Board, and the N.E.S. Blocks. Brief accounts of three Mahila Samajams are given below.

Kasturba Mahila Samaj, Vellayil

This is located at Vellayil near Calicut city. Established in 1949 the Kasturba Mahila Samaj is one of the important Mahila Samajams of the District. It carries on manifold activities. In 1958, a drama was staged in the Calicut Town Hall in aid of the Samaj. An Ice Cream Stall was conducted in 1959 at the Veterinary Hospital premises during the cattle show. Clothes were distributed to the poor and the needy on the Republic Day of 1959. The Samaj also runs needle work and cooking classes in its own building. The membership of the association is open to all women above the age of 17. In 1958 there were 92 members in the Kasturba Mahila Samaj. Its income and expenditure in 1958 were Rs. 4,997 and Rs. 4,153 respectively.

Mahila Samaj, Narippatta

Established in 1958 the Samaj had a membership of 20 in 1959-60. With the help of the Kunnummel N.E.S. Block it is maintaining a good kitchen garden. It is also interested in the promotion of rural arts and crafts. A sewing machine has been supplied to the Samaj by the Block. In 1959-60 the Block also gave a grant of Rs. 300 to the Samaj.

Balusseri Mahila Samaj

Established in 1956, it had a membership of 49 including 4 life members in 1958-59. The affairs of the Samaj are conducted by the President and other office-bearers including a working committee periodically elected. The association has been conducting spinning and Charka classes with a high degree of success. It also runs a library. A training class in dance was inaugurated in July 1958. The report received in 1959 shows that plans for starting a training class in music had been completed and that the Kerala Sangeetha Nataka Academy Trichur had given financial aid to the Samaj. The Samaj is aided by the Balusseri N.E.S. Block, the Central Social Welfare Advisory Board and the public. Its income and expenditure in 1958-59 were Rs. 1,939 and Rs. 1,891 respectively.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Ambalavayal (South Wynad Taluk)

Twenty three miles north of Vayittiri, Ambalavayal is the centre of the Wynad Colonisation Scheme. It has a population of 8,620 (Census 1951) and an area of 14,984 acres. There is an Agricultural Research Station and a Sericulture Farm run here by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research. The Chingeri Tribal Settlement is situated two miles away from this place.

Ariyakod (Ernad Taluk)

Eleven miles north-west of Manjeri, Ariyakod is a village situated on the south bank of the Beypore river. Ariyakod and the surrounding regions witnessed some of the bloodiest scenes during the Malabar Rebellion of 1921. There are several undeciphered *Vattezhuthu* pillar inscriptions here. In the course of the construction of a local school some caves were excavated. The caves six feet deep lead to two rooms and a kitchen underground where shreds of pottery and household utensils were found. Pottery is the main industry in this village. Across the Beypore river in Trikkalayur *desam* of Kizhuparamba *amsam* is a celebrated temple dedicated to Siva. In all, there are six mosques and four temples in the village.

Ariyakod has the Sullamusalam Arabic College, a Government Secondary School and a private Oriental Secondary School. A Government Rural Dispensary is functioning here.

Badagara (Vadakara) (Badagara Taluk) 11° 35′ North latitude and 75° 30′ East longitude)

An important port of the District, a railway station and the headquarters of the Badagara Taluk, Badagara (*Vadakkekara*) is so called because of its situation just north of the Kotta river. The town is on the sea coast at the northern extremity of the Elathur-Badagara backwater and on the trunk road from Calicut to Cannanore, 30 miles from the former and 12 miles south of Tellicherry. According to the Census of 1951

Badagara had a population of 20,964 and an area of 3.28 sq. miles. But with the merger of two adjoining villages with the Badagara Municipality, the town limits have extended to an area of 8.23 sq. miles and the population is 37,244 according to the Census of 1951 (43,900, provisional population figure, 1961 Census). There is a ruined fort in the heart of the town. Tradition has it that the fort was acquired from the Kolattiri by the Kadattanad family in 1564 A.D., but probably it was built after 1703. The Mysoreans established a monopoly of all goods exported from Malabar, and converted the fort into their warehouse. A desperate attempt was made by them to establish their foothold here, but after the fall of Fort St. Angelo at Cannanore in 1790 the Mysoreans were driven out of Badagara and Kuttipuram with heavy loss of men and munitions. The advent of the British saw the restoration of the fort to Kadattanad Raja.

Badagara was the scene of many of the exploits of Taccholi Othenan, the hero of the ballads of North Malabar (*Vatakkan pattukal*). Near the Peruvantala temple about half a mile from the masonry well 20½′ in diameter and close thereto is a massive block of laterite. One of the legends about Taccholi Othenan is that with this block of laterite under one arm and a jack tree under the other he cleared the well at a bound. The Taccholi *tarawad* is in Nadakkuthazha *desam*. Taccholi Manikkoth near Meppayil, a mile from Badagara town, is the birth place of Othenan. In the temple nearby are conducted annual ceremonies in memory of the exploits of this hero. Three miles south-east of Badagara in Memunda *amsom* is the Lokanar *kavu*, a celebrated temple belonging to the Kadattanad Valia Raja, which is frequently mentioned in the Taccholi ballads. In the vicinity of the temple are three rock-cut caves. The important mosque of the town is situated near the beach. There is also a Catholic church here.

Badagara is a flourishing centre of trade and commerce in pepper and coconut products such as copra, coconut fibre, yarn and coir. A large number of oil mills have sprung up here. Orakatteri cattle fair is held between 25th January and 2nd February at Orakatteri, four miles from Badagara. Badagara port is an open roadstead and there is no backwater communication with the port. Though open to foreign trade, only coasting steamers call at the port regularly, as also sailing vessels. Cargo is handled by lighters from the anchorage to

the beach. The trade of the port which comprises mainly of export of coconut, coconut products and pepper is expected to increase on the completion of the pier with the electric cranes.

On 1st October, 1958 was established the Badagara Municipality comprising the Badagara Panchayat and the villages of Puduppanam and Nadakkuthazha. There are two Government Hospitals in the town. A Veterinary Hospital is also located here. The only Secondary Health Centre in Kozhikode District is at Badagara. There is also a Government Ayurvedic Hospital. The Madapally Government Arts and Science College is situated at Karakkad, three miles away from here. There are three Secondary Schools, all run by private agencies. Badagara is the seat of a Sub-Court, a Munsiff's Court and a Sub-Magistrate's Court. Among the institutions of public resort in the town may be mentioned two cinema theatres, a library and a reading room. There are four community radio sets in the town. The town has 17 miles of motorable road. The Travellers' Bungalow here is about a century old.

Balusseri (Quilandi Taluk) (11° 25′ North latitude and 75° 50′ East longitude).

Balusseri is the headquarters of the Balusseri National Extension Service Block. There is here a ruined temple dedicated to *Vettakorumakan*. The Manakat *Kovilakam Bhagavathi* temple here which was renovated only in the recent past was gutted by a fire in May, 1961. Even the gold and silver utensils were destroyed. The beautiful Urakuzhi waterfalls are in the Kayanna village near Balusseri. There is a Government High School here.

Beypore (Kozhikode Taluk (11° 10′ North latitude and 75° 45′ East longitude).

Beypore town is situated about six miles away from the Calicut railway station, at the mouth of the Beypore river. It covers an area of 6.89 sq. miles and has a population of 26,153 according to the Census of 1951. The place was formerly known as Vaypura and Vada Parappanad. Tipu Sultan named the town '*Sultan Pattanam*'. Tipu selected Beypore as the venue of his capital of Malabar, but hardly a vestige of its short-lived importance has survived. It is one of the chief ports of Kerala and naturally an important trading centre. Coconut products are the chief item of trade. Arrangements are under way for the construction of a Boat-building yard at

Beypore port in order to build and make available mechanised fishing boats to the fishermen in Malabar area. A Grab Dredger and an Aga Buoy will be provided to convert the port into a major fishing harbour and an all-weather port. Construction of break-waters forms yet another important phase in the development of this port. Beypore has a Siva temple within which there are beautiful carvings. Ganapathi and Bhagavathi are also worshipped here. A Government Secondary School and a Fishermen Training Centre are functioning in Beypore town.

Calicut (Kozhikode Taluk) (11° 10′ North latitude and 75° 45′ East longitude).

Headquarters of the Kozhikode District and Kozhikode Taluk, Calicut is one of the growing cities of South India. Situated on the Ernakulam-Mangalore railway line, it is 258 miles away from Trivandrum, the State Capital. The city lies on a fairly straight coast line near the mouth of the Kallai river. According to the Census of 1951 it had a population of 158,724 and an area of 11.35 sq. miles. The population of the city is 192,435 according to provisional population figures of the 1961 Census.

Calicut has a long and chequered history. According to the *Keralolpathi* it was part of the Cheraman Perumal's territory and became the Zamorin's possession following the departure of the Perumal for Mecca.[1] The Chinese were the first to establish commercial contact with Calicut. They brought gold, silver, copper, spikenard and clothes of silk and gold, and exchanged them for pepper, cinnamon, ginger, nuts and textile products. When Ibn Batuta of Tangiers visited Calicut during the period 1342-47 the Moors were the predominant trading class. By the beginning of the fifteenth century they had broken the Chinese monopoly of trade. Ibn Batuta is said to have come to Calicut no less than six times and stayed there for three months on his first visit. To him Calicut was "one of the chief harbours of the country of Malabar, where people from China, Sumatra (Jawa), Ceylon (Saylan), the Maldive islands (Mahal), Yemen and Fars come and here gather merchants from all quarters of the globe and the harbour of Calicut is one of the largest in the World".[2]

1 The different views regarding the origin of the name of the city have already been examined in Chapter I.

2 *The Delhi Sultanate*, R. C. Majumdar, pp. 417-418.

Both literary and historical records testify to the enviable and proud position occupied by Calicut at the time of the arrival of the Portuguese. Abdur Razzak noted in 1443 that it was a flourishing port. During the sixteenth century its population consisted mostly of Hindus but there was a large number of Muslims from the Levant. They had built mosques in the city and monopolised foreign trade. The Arab traders never interfered in local politics, but helped the Zamorin in equipping the army with better arms and Arab horses. Ibrahim, a merchant from Bahrein was the head of the merchants in the town and held the office of "Shah Bhandar" or "receiver-general" of duties. He was the chief officer in the customs house with whom foreign merchants and captains negotiated. Duarte Barbosa notes that for the administration of Calicut a Governor and Customs Officer were appointed by the Zamorin.

Portuguese interference with the Moorish trade dealt a knock-out blow to Calicut as a trade centre. Under the influence of the Portuguese, and later of the Dutch, Cochin replaced Calicut as the chief port on the Kerala Coast. The Portuguese erected a fort in Calicut in 1513. Built by Thomas Fernandez, who constructed Fort St. Angelo at Cannanore, it was situated on the north bank of the Kallai at its entrance to the sea. No trace of this fort remains today. The English, the French and the Danes who succeeded the Portuguese set up factories in Calicut. The English and the French were permitted by the Zamorin to settle down here in 1667 and 1708 respectively. The English were in the good books of the Zamorin as the local English Resident abstained from interference in politics. The French factory was established on the sea front. The Danes were allowed to settle in Calicut on condition of "payment of customs on all goods imported and exported, supply of munitions of war and aid in case of attack on the Zamorin's territories".[1]

The relics of the historic traditions of Calicut have faded away. It is believed that the ancient palace of the Zamorins stood at Kottaparamba, a site believed to be very near Mananchira to the eastern side of the present Women and Children's Hospital. Mananchira was at that time the bathing tank of the members of the Zamorin's household. An open ground adjacent to the Mananchira is believed to have once been the

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1 Malabar District Gazetteer, Innes and Evans, p. 411.

Muthalakulam. In the vicinity were a large numbers of minor tanks, temples and inns. But today almost all these things have disappeared. The nucleus of the city is the area around Mananchira. Calicut strikes the visitor as a busy commercial centre and it is linked with the towns and villages by frequent bus services. Catering to all cadres of tourists and travellers there are the Tourists' Bungalow near West Hill, and the Travellers Bungalow and the *Sathram*, both in the heart of the city and maintained by the Municipality. Some major public offices including the Collectorate are scattered in areas around Mananchira. Mananchira tank is a reservoir of excellent drinking water. Like some of the major cities of India Calicut has also grown in a haphazard manner devoid of any planning. The Beach Road runs fairly straight and a visitor can enjoy the cool breeze if he takes an evening stroll along this way. During this walk one cannot miss the sight of the two piers jutting out into the sea at the two farther ends of the coastline. The piers, the vessels anchored off the coast, the giant cranes unloading the cargoes, the warehouses on the shore, the bullock-carts and lorries laden to the brim with merchandise, all these conjure up the vision of the growing commercial prominence of Calicut.

The civic affairs of the city are managed by the Calicut Municipality established as early as 1865. The city has been divided into 25 survey wards and 32 election wards. This Municipality takes pride in being the only one of its kind in Kerala in running a Municipal bus service. It maintains Community Radio sets at Kuttichira, Ansari Park, Tagore Memorial Park, Mankavu Municipal Dispensary, Canolly Children's Park and Kallai Park. The roads and lanes in the city are maintained by the Municipality. Trunk roads totalling 9 miles and 5 furlongs within the Municipality are maintained by the Highway Department, while the Municipality is in charge of the upkeep of roads totalling over 71 miles. The city is supplied with power by the West Coast Electric Supply Corporation. Fluoroscent tube lights are installed at important road junctions. From the year 1950 onwards the Municipality is conducting an All India Exhibition, the proceeds of which are utilised for combating diseases like T.B. and Cancer. A Foot Ball Tournament is annually held in the city under the auspices of the Municipality. With the enactment of the Calicut Municipal Act 1961 steps are being taken to raise the Municipality to a Corporation. A net work of Municipal Dispensaries is spread over the city.

A major industrial city and commercial and trading centre, Calicut has a number of Government owned factories and industrial establishments. Among them are the Kerala Soap Factory at Vellayil, the Government Hydrogenation Factory at West Hill and the Government Oil Factory. The Industrial Training Institute in the city was opened in February, 1959. The Government have taken steps to establish an Industrial Estate. A fish curing Ice Plant and Cold Storage is functioning at West Hill. In addition there is a Fisheries Technological Station. A Pasteurisation plant is being set up here with assistance from the UNICEF under the Calicut Milk Supply Scheme. Kallai, a suburb of Calicut, is the centre of the timber industry in Kerala. The timber yard here is the second largest in the world. From the giant bridge spanning the Kallai river one cannot miss the pleasant sight of multitudinous logs of timber floating on the river. This has given rise to a number of saw mills, including the well-known Malabar Spinning and Weaving Mills. Products of these are sent to different parts of the country and abroad. Furniture-making industry is also thriving here as an allied industry.

The port of Calicut inclusive of Beypore is commercially the most important port after Bombay and Cochin on the West Coast of India. It is an open roadstead and its coast line extends from Elathur Cape down to the south bank of the Kadalundi river. The port of Beypore declared a wharf of Calicut for administrative purposes is situated at the mouth on the right bank of the Beypore river and about 6 miles south of Calicut within port limits three rivers, namely the Kallai, the Beypore and the Kadalundi, join the sea. Both Calicut and Beypore are open to foreign trade. The port virtually handles no cargo during the south-west monsoon. It is estimated that over a lakh tons of cargo, that would have passed through Calicut but for the monsoon, is diverted to Cochin. If made an all-weather-port, it will handle no less than 4 lakhs tons annually. The principal exports from this port are coir fibre, coir mats, matting and rugs, coir yarn, copra, coconut, coffee, tea, pepper, ginger, rubber, groundnut, raw cotton, cashew kernels, cardamom, fish manure, soap, tobacco, turmeric and bricks and tiles. The Light-house at Calicut was built in February, 1847 and the first pier a little later in 1871. The only Meteorological Observatory in the District is at Calicut,

There are a large number of temples, mosques and churches in the city. The temples enjoy a hoary tradition. The interior of the temples is embellished with beautiful murals while exquisite sculptures both inside and outside the temples arrest the attention of the inquisitive and aesthetic mind. The most important of these temples are the Sreekanteswaram temple, the Tali temple, the Tiruvannur temple, the Varakkal temple, the Maharaja temple, the Bilattikulam temple, the Arikkodikkavu temple, the Kokkolikottu temple and the Bhairagi *Madhom* temple. The festival in the Sreekanteswaram temple situated in the heart of the town takes place on the *Sivarathri* day, a festival day for the Maharaja temple too. Adjacent to the Varakkal, Bilattikulam and Tali temples there are big tanks used for bathing purposes. The Tali temple also situated in the heart of the town is dedicated to Siva. There are however, the idols of Vishnu, Bhagavathi, Ganapathi and Ayyappan preserved and worshipped in this temple. The temple contains exquisite sculptures and paintings portraying stories from Hindu mythology. The annual festival here is celebrated for a week in the month of *Medam* (April-May). The Tiruvannur temple, an ancient temple elaborately sculptured and painted, is in Panniyankara *amsom*. The principal deity of this temple is Siva, though Vishnu, Ganapathi and Ayyappan are also worshipped here. Vettakorumakan is the chief deity of the Bilattikulam temple, and the festival of this temple is held for forty days in December and January. Bhagavathy and Ayyappan are the deities worshipped in the Arikkodikkavu temple. In the month of *Kanni* (September-October) a festival lasting for ten days is celebrated here. The Kokkolikottu temple is dedicated to Siva. The Varakkal temple is situated on the top of a hillock near the West Hill railway station. According to tradition the idol enshrined here is a gift from Parasurama. The festival in this temple takes place on New Moon Day in the month of *Thulam* (October-November) and on this occasion the God-fearing people thronging to this temple perform ancestral rites and rituals and take a dip in the sea nearby. According to the *Malabar District Gazetteer* "On this day every husband must visit his wife with presents of sweetmeat, plantains and the like". Failure to visit on the Varakkal New Moon, so runs the proverb, "entails forfeiture of relationship, ". The Tiruvalangad temple, two miles east of Calicut, is also important and it contains many ancient engravings.

Mosques outnumber temples and can stand comparison with the latter in antiquity. There are not less than forty mosques, the most important of which are the two Jamat mosques on the banks of Kuttichira tank and the *Pazhaya Palli*. The Sheik-kinde *Palli* is built over the tomb of Sheik Mammu Koya, a pious Muslim immigrant from Egypt.

The Anglican and Basel Mission churches in the city were established towards the middle of nineteenth century. But the Roman Catholic church dedicated to *Madre de Deos* (Mother of God) was built even much earlier, probably in the first quarter of the 18th century. During the invasion of Tipu Sultan in 1788 the Vicar and Clergymen fled from here and sought sanctuary in Tellicherry. They however returned in 1792. The images of Virgin Mary and the Crucifixion and a painting of Madonna and child kept in the church are believed to be the best work of the artists of the age. Pope Pius IX issued a bull in 1878 placing the church under the jurisdiction of the Jesuits. At Malaparamba, 4½ miles north of Calicut, there is a Jesuit monastery known as Christ Hall.

Calicut does not lag behind other cities in the State in point of educational progress. Of the thirteen High Schools in the city four are run by the Government and the rest by private agencies. There are three Training Schools for men and women. The important Arts and Science Colleges of the place are the Malabar Christian College, St. Joseph's College, Providence Women's College and Guruvayurappan College (formerly known as the Zamorin's College), the last three being located in Devagiri, Malaparamba and Pookunnu respectively in the suburbs of the city. In addition there are the Government Training College near Mananchira, the Government Physical Education College at West Hill, and the Kerala Polytechnic. Chevayur, a village four and a half miles from Calicut, is the site of the Medical College set up in 1957. A Regional Engineering College, the first of its kind in Kerala, was started in the city in 1961. In order to extend the activities of the University of Kerala to the Malabar region and to provide facilities for post-graduate training and research in both science and humanities to the people of the region a University Centre was opened at Calicut on 30th January, 1961.

The major libraries in Calicut are the District Central Library, Calicut, Sen Gupta Public Library, Puthiyara and the Wilkinson Law Library. The *Kala samities* working in

different parts of the city promote the cause of fine arts like music, dance, drama and painting. The All India Radio Station on the sea front was established in 1950.

The most important Government Hospitals in Calicut are the Medical College Hospital (now housed in the buildings of the District Headquarters Hospital on the Beach Road), the Women and Children's Hospital and the Maternity Hospital. Besides there are a large number of private allopathic hospitals and dispensaries in the city. Though there are no Government Ayurvedic Hospitals, there are numerous private Ayurvedic Dispensaries including a branch of the Kottakkal *Arya Vaidyasala*. The Government Homoeopathic Dispensary opened in March, 1959 is situated near the fifth railway gate in Vellayil. The Calicut Municipality runs a T.B. Clinic and Ayurvedic and allopathic dispensaries at Kallai (Prince of Wales Dispensary), Mankavu (Dr. Nedungadi Municipal Dispensary), Kuttichira (Koyappathodi Municipal Dispensary), Vellayil (Vellayil Dispensary), Chalapuram (Rao Bahadur A. P. Chirukundu Dispensary), and West Hill (Municipal Dispensary). The Municipality has an Infectious Diseases Hospital at Vellayil.

A detailed list of Central and State Government Offices located in the city can be had from Chapter X.

Chaliyam (Tirur Taluk) (11° 20′ North latitude and 75° 45′ East longitude).

An island in Kadalundi *amsom* formed by the Beypore and Kadalundi rivers, Chaliyam was formerly the terminus of the Madras Railway. But its importance waned with the extension of the railway up to Calicut in 1888. The island is connected with the mainland by a groyne. A fort was built by the Portuguese in 1531 on the ruins of the tombs of the Muslims and the Jamat mosque. This petty pocket of the Portuguese often gave pinpricks to the Zamorin and blighted the prospects of trade in Calicut and neighbouring regions. In 1572 the fort was besieged by the Zamorin with the assistance of the Moors; at last the garrison capitulated, and they were offered safe conduct by the Zamorin. The fortress was razed to the ground forthwith.

There are a private Secondary School and a Government Dispensary here.

Chombala (Badagara Taluk).

Five miles north of Badagara on the Tellicherry road, Chombala has an area of 1.22 sq. miles and a population of 3,596 (Census 1951). It has been a centre of the Basel Mission since 1848. The mission has its branches at Mahe, Badagara, Muvarattu, Perambra and Karakkad.

Feroke (Tirur Taluk) (11° 10′ North latitude and 75° 50′ East longitude).

An important railway station seven miles south of Calicut, Feroke has a population of 19,463 according to the Census of 1951. (24,000 provisional figure, 1961 Census) and an area of 5.23 sq. miles. A few furlongs south-west of the town are the remains of Ferokabad, a fortress built by Tipu Sultan in 1788 as the temporary headquarters of his conquests in Malabar; but after the defeat of Martab Khan, one of the generals of Tipu Sultan at Tirurangadi in 1790 the garrison of Tipu was driven out of the fortress. A large number of the inhabitants of Calicut were forced by Tipu Sultan to settle down in Feroke, but when the forces of Tipu suffered defeat these inhabitants returned to Calicut.

The tiles and ceramics industry of the District is concentrated in this locality. Feroke tiles are famous all over the world. There are also a large number of plywood and match factories here. Feroke is also a prominent trading centre in crockery. There is an Arts and Science College in the town viz., the Farook College. The Rouzathul Uloom Arabic College is situated at an elevation about three miles east of the railway station. There are also two High Schools, one of which is attached to the Farook College.

Kadalundi (Tirur Taluk) (11° 05′ North latitude and 75° 51′ East longitude).

Kadalundi is virtually an island surrounded by the Kadalundi and Beypore rivers on three sides and by the sea on the west. Linked with the main land by rail it is seventeen miles north of Tirur. It has a population of 10,580 (Census 1951) and an area of 2.05 sq. miles (12,300 provisional figure, 1961 Census). The Tyndis of Ptolemy 'a village of great note by the sea', Kadalundi is a historic place. With Tyndis began, according to both Ptolemy and the *Periplus*, the Kingdom of Cherabothra. Kadalundi is today an important trading

centre in lime shell, fish, coconut fibre, yarn and coir. The Nirumkayicha Kotta temple in Vallikunnam *amsom* here has a tradition going back to the days of Sri Rama's conquest of Ceylon. The deity enshrined here is Lord Ayyappan. The monkeys which frequent the precincts of the temple are believed to be the scions of a segment of Rama's *vanarapata* left here after the triumphant return from Ceylon. They are fed daily even today.

Kalikavu (Ernad Taluk) (11° 10′ North latitude and 76° 15′ East longitude).

Nineteen miles north-east of Manjeri, Kalikavu has a population of 9,600 (Census 1951) and an area of 40.22 sq. miles. Kalikavu has a Government Dispensary. There are a large number of rubber plantations nearby.

Kalpetta (South Wynad Taluk) (11° 35′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

Six miles from Vayittiri, Kalpetta is one of the abodes of the aboriginal tribes of Wynad like the Kurichiyas, Kurumbars, Paniyas, etc. According to the Census of 1951, the population of Kalpetta is 8,750. The area covered by the place is 13.14 sq. miles. A large number of Jains said to be immigrants from Mysore are living here. The temple here is dedicated to Vishnu. The Gandhi *Sadanam* at Kalpetta fosters inter-tribal harmony by providing accommodation to tribal pupils. The privately owned High School and the Cinema house are important institutions in this place. In addition to the Government Hospital, a Mobile Medical Unit is functioning here to provide basic medical amenities to the tribal people. There is a Munsiff-Magistrate's court here.

Karuvarakundu (Ernad Taluk).

Twenty miles north-east of Manjeri, Karuvarakundu has a population of 10,712 (Census 1951) and an area of 62.188 sq. miles. It abounds in tea estates, rubber plantations and forests. There is a water-fall in the village. The place contains a few caves, temples, churches and mosques.

Kodakkal (Tirur Taluk) (13° 00′ North latitude and 79° 25′ East longitude).

Kodakkal is three miles from Pudiyangadi on the Tirunavayi road and situated about a mile and a half from Tirunavayi railway station. The place derives its name from

Kudakallu explored by an Englishman in 1819. A Basel Mission Station founded here in 1862 had branches at Ponnani, Tritala, Chalusseri, Chowghat and Mullasseri. The village has a temple dedicated to Lord Siva; north-west of the temple is the site of an old palace of the Vettatnad Raja.

Kondotti (Ernad Taluk (11° 05′ North latitude and 75° 55′ East longitude).

Headquarters of the Kondotti National Extension Service Block, Kondotti is situated twelve miles east of Manjeri. It is a trading centre in beedi manufacturing and pottery. The only attraction of the place is the Kondotti *Valia Nercha*, a festival of the Muslims, celebrated for three days in February-March. The Pazhayangadi mosque is about five centuries old. The Government Travellers' Bungalow is at least two miles away from Kondotti proper. There are a Government High School and a library run by the Malabar Local Library Authority. The two Government medical institutions in Kondotti are the Veterinary Dispensary and the Primary Health Centre.

Kottakkal (Ernad Taluk) (10° 55′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

Seven miles from Malappuram, Kottakkal was formerly known as *Venkata kotta*. It has a fortified palace of the *Kizhake Kovilakam* Rajas of the Zamorin's family. Ponmala, mid-way between Kottakkal and Malappuram, has an important Hindu temple. From very early times Kottakkal has been a flourishing centre of the Ayurveda system of treatment. Today it is the headquarters of the famous Kottakkal *Arya Vaidyasala*, an important private Ayurvedic institution established in 1900 and having its branches in several parts of the State and outside. An Ayurveda College (*Patasala*) is attached to the institution. There is a private High School here.

Kottakkal (Quilandi Taluk) (11° 00′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

Three miles south of Badagara at the mouth of the Kotta river, Kottakkal in Iringal *amsom* was a famous resort for pirates. For a long period Kottakkal was the stronghold of the Kottakkal Kunjali Marakkars, the famous Admirals of the Zamorin's fleet, whose escapades and exploits are the theme of many ballads in Malabar. Even the Kotta river derives its name from the *Kotta* (fort) erected by the Marakkars. The

earlier abode of the Marakkars was Pantalayini Kollam; but due to the persecution by Henry Meneses in 1525, they moved first to Tikkodi and finally to Kottakkal. It was the Zamorin who decorated them with their original title. When the Portuguese first settled in Calicut these Marakkars surprised a Portuguese vessel cruising on the Arabian Sea and slaughtered all the crew on the big rock which is called the *Velliyan Kallu* or white rock in the sea six miles off the Tikkodi lighthouse. Since this incident the Marakkars carried on their adventures by the name of the Sacrifice Rock. Kottakkal was besieged and taken by the Portuguese with the aid of the Zamorin in 1600 and the most famous of the Kunjali Marakkars was captured and executed at Goa. Subsequently the Marakkars seem to have transferred their allegiance to the Kadattanad Raja. The Marakkars made prizes of all not carrying the pass of the Kadattanad Raja, their sovereign who was styled the 'Lord of the Seas'. By the middle of the eighteenth century the activities of the Kunjali Marakkars had come to an end. The only remains that today remind us of the existence of the Marakkars are the tombs and the mausoleum attached to the Jamat mosque. Remnants of a fort and column are also still found there. A sword and a throne belonging to the Marakkar are kept in the local mosque. The Tikkodi lighthouse is very near Kottakkal in Vanamugam *amsom*.

Kuttipuram (Badagara Taluk) (11° 40′ North latitude and 75° 40′ East longitude).

Situated about ten miles from Badagara, Kuttipuram was the headquarters of the Kadattanad Valiya Raja. Behind the Raja's palace here existed a massive fortress surrounded by a deep moat. In ancient times it must have been well-nigh impregnable. Nevertheless it was captured by Tipu Sultan in 1789 after a siege which lasted several days; and its garrison consisting of 2,000 Nairs and their families were offered their choice between "a voluntary profession of the Muhammadan faith and a forcible conversion with deportation from their native lands".[1] They chose the former, and the next day the men were circumcised and all were made to eat beef. Kuttipuram fort was one of the last places in Malabar to hold out against Tipu.

1 See Chapter II for details.

There is a Siva temple at Kattipuram. A Government Secondary School and a Government Veterinary Dispensary are functioning here.

Kuttiyadi (Badagara Taluk) (11° 30′ North latitude and 75° 55′ East longitude).

Eighteen miles from Badagara, Kuttiyadi in early times always acknowledged the supremacy of the Kottayam Raja, whose fortified palace stood on a hill in the place. The old name of this place is Amladi. The remnants of the palace can still be seen. The *Neerattukuli kadavu* which today is a public bathing ghat was once exclusively used by the Raja. The fort which mounted four guns fell into the hands of the Mysoreans, but was recaptured in 1790 by the Raja. During the Pazhassi rebellion Kuttiyadi which commanded one of the chief passes to the Wynad in those times was of great strategic importance and the fort was for some years held by British troops. In the course of the excavations conducted in 1957 the shafts of the two golden swords supposed to have been used by the Pazhassi Raja were unearthed. Overlooking Kuttiyadi and other hilly regions is the 5,767′ high Banasura peak, called after the giant Banasura who is supposed to have built a fort on the summit. In Valayyanpur *desam* is a *tura* or artificial lake fabled to have been excavated by the Pandavas of the great Epics.

A Public Health Unit is functioning at Kuttiyadi. The Kunnummel High School and N.E.S. Block are three miles and a-half from here.

Lakkidi (South Wynad Taluk) (11° 30′ North latitude and 70° 00′ East longitude).

Situated three miles south of Vayittiri and 2,000′ above sea level Lakkidi is a flourishing tourist centre. The scenic beauty with the mountainous peaks lost either in the clouds or the mist, the gurgling streams, and the luxuriant vegetation is a veritable feast to the expectant eyes of the tourist. From the dizzy heights of the place where the Ghat Road ends one can have a bird's eye-view of the valley below with its winding roads amid the jungles. Throughout three quarters of a year Lakkidi is having rains; but gradual deforestation has had its effect upon the climate. In the meteorological map of India Lakkidi is as important as Cherrapunji as the rainfall here is one of heaviest.

Barely two miles away from Lakkidi is the placid Pookot Lake, a natural sheet of water among hills infested with sambur and other species of wild life including elephant. On the picturesque bank of the lake are the remains of an old building, a swimming pool and a tennis court. There are also a large number of tombs. It would appear that the whole area was once the favourite resort of European planters.

Lakkidi derives its name from a fort or wooden stockade (*Lakkidi—Kotta*) built here in 1800 by Col. Stevenson during the military operations against the Pazhassi Raja. The Tourist Bungalow here provides all kinds of modern amenities to the tourists.

Malappuram (Ernad Taluk) (11° 00′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

Seven miles south of Manjeri, Malappuram is the headquarters of the well known Malabar Special Police, the Malappuram Revenue Division and the Malappuram National Extension Service Block. It has an area of 7.77 sq. miles and a population of 15,457, according to the Census of 1951. Tipu Sultan had a fort here. The Fort Gate *maidan* (Kottapadi) at the foot of the cantonment hill was once used by Para Nambi, a chieftain under the Zamorin for training his militia. Malappuram, Calicut and Cannanore were the headquarters of European and British troops for a long time. In order to quell the frequent disturbances in this place the British raised the Malappuram Special Police which ruthlessly suppressed the Malabar Rebellion in 1921. This Police force was disbanded later and the Malabar Special Police took its place. Even today the Malabar Special Police with its headquarters at Malappuram plays a unique role in the maintenance of law and order in the State. Whenever breach of the peace is feared in any part of the State, the units of the Malabar Special Police are rushed there.

Weekly shandies are held here. There are two churches at Malappuram. The important mosque of the town is the Jamat mosque. The Malappuram *Nercha* is conducted here for four days in April, in memory of those who fell in the fighting between Para Nambi and local Mappilas. There are two minor temples here dedicated to Lord Siva. Malappuram has a Sub-Divisional Magistrate's Court. The Government Hospital here caters to the needs of the personnel of the Malabar Special

Police and their dependents. A Veterinary Dispensary, a Government High School and a Basic Training School are functioning here. There are also a Government T.B. and a *Satram*.

Mambram (Tirur Taluk)

Opposite to Tirurangadi on the north bank of the river, Mambram was the residence of the Mambram Tangals. The first of these Tangals, Sayed Hussain Ibn Alabi Jiffri Tangal, is said to have come from Arabia, settled at Mambram in the early part of the eighteenth century and lived in the house called Taramal. The *mukham* or mausoleum here is a favourite place of pilgrimage. The Mambram mosque in Koduvayur *amsom* as it exists today was originally a Hindu temple which was converted into a mosque during the Malabar Rebellion in 1921.

Manjeri (Ernad Taluk) (11° 05′ North latitude and 76° 05′ East longitude).

Manjeri, the headquarters of the Ernad Taluk, is situated 30 miles away from Calicut. According to the 1951 Census it has a population of 11,830. Manjeri is a predominantly Muslim town. It was for a while the headquarters of the Mysorean troops during Haider Ali's invasion of Malabar. In recent times it served as the venue of the famous Malabar District Political Conference held in 1920. Manjeri was also a stronghold of the rebels during the Malabar Rebellion of 1921. The *Srimutra kunnu* or Kunnath *Ambalam* in this place is dedicated to Goddess Durga. A *Vattezhuthu* inscription on the eastern wall of the temple records the fact that the temple was built and dedicated by Mana Vikrava Manavikravan in M.E. 827 (1652 A.D.). The temple at present belongs to the Manjeri *Kovilakam*. The annual festival known as *Manjeri Pooram* is held here during March-April and lasts for seven days. The sixth and seventh days of the festival witness the peak of the pomp and gaiety of the celebrations and variety programmes are held from 4 p.m. to 6 p.m. on these two days. There is also the display of fireworks and staging of the *Kathakali Ottamthullal*, etc. At the Kalikavu temple in Menjeri a festival known as *"Kalikavu Thalapoli"* is held during April-May. The highlight of the festival is its beautiful procession with drum-beating and elephant bearing the deity. There are three mosques and two churches, Protestant and Catholic, at Manjeri.

Manjeri has a Munsiff's Court and a Sub-Magistrate's Court. The Government Hospital, the Government Secondary School and the Junior Technical School situated in Karuvampuram *amsom* are the important institutions of the place. A large number of match factories are located here. The Public Works Department maintains a Travellers' Bungalow and *Sathram* here.

Nadapuram (Badagara Taluk) (11° 40′ North latitude and 75° 35′ East longitude).

Eleven miles north-east of Badagara at the junction of the roads from Tellicherry and Badagara to Kuttiyadi, Nadapuram is situated in Porameri *amsom*. It has an area of 7.90 sq. miles and a population of 16,817 (Census 1951). From the point of view of Islamic culture Nadapuram is second only to Ponnani in importance. It has a Munsiff's Court. The only private High School here is named after the Kadattanad Raja.

Nilambur (Ernad Taluk) (11° 15′ North latitude and 76° 10′ East longitude).

Sixteen miles north of Manjeri, Nilambur is an extensive forest area well known for its bamboos. It has a population of 24,481 (1951 Census) and an area of 202.67 sq. miles. The remains of old temples, inscriptions on slabs, and tanks are scattered here and there in the Nilambur forests. Tradition has it that the area was once the colony of Nambuthiris who were driven to Karikad *desam* of Trikkalangode by the unwelcome attention to their women of the demon Bagan. In memory of the time when they lived in terror of the demon the *antharjanams* of this area to this day refrain from wearing bangles worn by other Nambuthiri women elsewhere. A festival known as *"Nilambur Pattu"* is held for four days in December-January by the Nilambur *Kovilakam* at "Vettakkorumakan temple". The temple belongs to the Kovilakam. The festival attracts a large number of devotees including those from the hill tribes in the neighbourhood.

Nilambur is the terminus of the Shoranur-Nilambur railway. The important institutions run by the Government at Nilambur are the Hospital, the High School and the Veterinary Dispensary. The bamboo obtained from the Nilambur forests is to be utilised for a paper pulp factory to be started by the Birlas in the private sector at Mavur. Nilambur has a Government Rest House and the world's oldest teak plantation.

Pandikkad (Ernad Taluk) (11° 95′ North latitude and 76° 10′ East longitude).

The place is situated eight miles east of Manjeri. There are three mosques and two temples here. Pandikkad has a Government Hospital and a Secondary School. One of the camps of the Malabar Special Police is located here.

Pantalayini Kollam (Quilandi Taluk) (45° 25′ North latitude and 75° 80′ East longitude).

Situated to the north of Quilandi, Pantalayini Kollam or Pantalayini is a place of considerable historical importance. It has a population of 29,001 according to the Census of 1951 and covers an area of 4.31 sq. miles. It is the Patale of Pliny, the Pandarani of the Portuguese chroniclers, the Flandarina of Prior Odoric, the Fundreeah of the *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahidin* and the Fandaraina of Ibn Batuta. The Kollam Raja of Payyanad had his capital here. The Zamorin had a palace at Pantalayini. According to the *Tuhafat-ul-Mujahidin,* Malik Ibn Dinar founded one of the original mosques here in the seventh century and appointed one of his sons as *Kazi*. This mosque appears to have been built in imitation of the one at Mecca. The dome is covered with sheets of copper. Arab vessels cruising along the coast used to salute the mosque. In the Jamat mosque there are three granite slabs with inscriptions. A festival is annually held in the month of *Rumuzan* on *Mayyath Kunnu* (grave yard hill). There are several ancient tombs on the hill, some of them with inscriptions, attached to Parapalli at Kollam.

A natural hollow in a rock on the seashore close to the mosque has been chiselled into the shape of a foot, and this mark is said to be the footprint of Adam as he landed in India —his next stride taking him to the Adam's peak in Ceylon. Ibn Batuta had described Kollam as a beautiful and large place, abounding with gardens and markets. Vasco da Gama is said to have come to Pantalayini in 1498. At that time it was a great emporium of trade between Mecca and the Malabar, a stronghold of the Moors. The Portuguese made many attacks upon the town and it was strongly defended by the garrison on the *Mayyat Kunnu*. Soares defeated a Moorish fleet here in 1504 and in 1525 Menezes stormed the town, destroyed the ships and captured a large number of guns. In 1550 Pantalayini

was once more raided and burnt by the Portuguese and a large number of inhabitants were killed. Pantalayini was thus a flourishing sea-port till the close of the sixteenth century.

The Pishari *Kavu* temple at Pantalayini is dedicated to Bhagavathi and Siva. The *Dasra* festival is celebrated here with great pomp in the month of *Kanni* (September-October). Another festival called *Kaliyattam* festival lasting for eight days is conducted in the month of *Meenam* (March-April). There are also some minor Hindu temples. There are inscriptions in the minor temples of Maralur, Pantalayini and Thaliyil.

Pudiyangadi (Tirur Taluk) (11° 15′ North latitude and 75° 45′ East longitude).

Three miles from Tirur, Pudiyangadi was formerly called Bettatpudiyangadi (Bettat+Pudiya+Angadi—meaning the new town in Vettam, the seat of the Raja of Bettatnad). The estate of the Raja of Bettatnad became escheated in 1793. There are two Jamat mosques here. At Vellamasseri there is a Hindu temple dedicated to *Garuda*. The temple is resorted to by the Hindu population to ward off any *sarpapida* (visitations of serpentine displeasure in the form of various diseases), *Garuda* being the natural enemy of serpents. There is also a Hanuman temple nearby. A festival known as *Nercha* is conducted by the Muslims here.

Pukkottur (Ernad Taluk) (11° 05′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

The place is situated sixteen miles from Manjeri. The area covered by it is 3.86 sq. miles while the population is 4,343 according to the Census of 1951. Pukkottur is famous for the battle of Pukkottur which has gone down in history as constituting a decisive phase in the course of the Malabar Rebellion of 1921. Pukkottur has three mosques and two temples. There is a Government Secondary School.

Quilandi (Quilandi Taluk) (15° 25′ North latitude and 75° 40′ East longitude).

A railway station and the headquarters of the Quilandi Taluk, Quilandi was once a flourishing port and the favourite starting and landing place of pilgrims on their way to and from Mecca. There is a fine old mosque here founded in 1779 by Sayed Abdulla Bin Sayed Abdulla Hajee. There are inscriptions in several temples here. The inscription on a slab in

front of the Siva temple in Sakthan Kulangara *amsom* mentions the *Kalasam* (purification) ceremony of the temple performed in 1730 A.D., with great fanfare by the elite among the Brahmins. According to this inscription the temple was built during the reign of Udayavarma, the scion of Khatolkacha, the son of Bhima.

A few miles from Quilandi at Koothali lived the feudal chieftain Koothali Nair. The last in the line of the Koothali Nair died about thirty years ago and his vast estates, mostly forests, escheated to the Government.

Quilandi has an Additional First Class Magistrate's Court. A Government Dispensary and a Veterinary Hospital are functioning here. A leprosy subsidiary centre is to be opened here. Quilandi is famous for its metal industry. Government runs a Travellers' Bungalow here.

Sultan's Battery (South Wynad Taluk) (11° 40′ North latitude and 76° 15′ East longitude).

Twenty-one miles from Vayittiri on the Vayittiri-Mysore Frontier Road, Sultan's Battery was formerly known as *Ganapathivattam*, the circle or range of the God Ganapathi. According to the Census of 1951 the population of Sultan's Battery is 12,500 and the area is 11,231 acres. It came to be called Sultan's Battery when Tipu Sultan erected a fort here. The Ganapathi temple, which belonged to the Kottayam Raja, was destroyed by Tipu and the only things that escaped his destruction were the idol and a few monolithic stones. Sultan's Battery was a military post during the Pazhassi revolt and the troops are said to have set up camps on the *Kotta kunnu* or fort hill. A few miles from Sultan's Battery is the historic place Panamaram. The Panamaram *Kotta* or the Palmyra tree fort was one of the bastions of Pazhassi Raja for a long time. But the fort was captured by the British in 1805 and the Pazhassi rebellion soon fizzled out. It was at Pulpally, twenty miles from Sultan's Battery that Pazhassi Raja was captured. The cave once used by Pazhassi is still there. Four miles south-west of Sultan's Battery on the western slopes of Edakkal *Mala* is the interesting natural rock-cut cave the details of which are given in Chapter II. The most interesting of the temples of Sultan's Battery is the Vasti temple, an old Jain temple a few yards south of the 60th mile-stone on the Mysore road. There are no Jains now in Sultan's Battery, though

colonies of them still exist in Manantoddy, Kalpetta and other places in Wynad. Another important temple is that at Pulpally dedicated to Rama's consort Sita and the twins Lava and Kusa. The festival in this temple takes place every January.

Tanur (Tirur Taluk) (10° 55′ North latitude and 75° 55′ East longitude).

A railway station five miles north of Tirur and a small port, Tanur is a non-Municipal town. It is the corrupted form of *'Tanniyur'*, meaning the village of *Tanni* trees, *Terminalia bellerica*, very common here. According to the Census of 1951, Tanur has a population of 17,883 (18,300 Census 1961) and an area of 3.47 sq. miles. Tanur was one of the early settlements of the Portuguese and after the peace of 1513 with the Zamorin a chapel was founded here. St. Francis Xavier visited the place in 1546 and converted the local chieftain. Tanur being an important fishing centre, fishermen form the bulk of the population. The Fisheries Department has erected an identification and guide light to help the sea-going fishermen to land safely on their villages after sunset and at times of squally weather. There are four mosques here of which the Jamat mosque is the most important. Two miles to the south of Tanur is the Keleswaram or Keraladhiswaram (and now Keraladhisapuram) temple dedicated to Vishnu. As its name (*Kerala*+*adhiswaram*, i.e., the governing deity of Kerala) implies, it is one of the ancient temples in the South. Two miles north of Tanur is another notable temple, the Trikkayikkad temple. The deities worshipped here are Siva, Bhagavathi and Ayyappan. The mural paintings of the Trinity (Brahma, Vishnu and Siva) and Narasimhamurthi can be found in the *Srikovil*. The Trikkayikkad temple is believed to have been founded by Parasurama, while the adjoining *Madham* is ascribed by local people to Sri Sankaracharya. A Government High School and a Government Dispensary are functioning in the town.

Tirur (Tirur Taluk) (10° 55′ North latitude and 75° 55′ East longitude).

The headquarters of the Tirur Taluk and a railway station, Tirur is situated 26 miles south of Calicut. Here the railway comes into contact with the palm-fringed backwaters and lagoons of Kerala. According to the Census of 1951 Tirur has a population of 8,864 and an area of 3.14 sq. miles. In the neighbouring Trikkandiyur *amsom* there is an ancient and

famous Siva temple believed to have been founded by Parasurama. The temple is associated in local tradition with Tunchathu Ezhuthachan, the father of Malayalam literature. One of the notable sites of the locality is the *Tunchan Parambu* which is the birth-place of Tunchathu Ezhuthachan. It is even now regarded as a hallowed ground possessing an extraordinary power of inspiration. Children in the neighbourhood and elsewhere when initiated into the study of the letters are made to write the letters of the alphabet in sand taken from the site. Of late a *narayam* (a crude form of instrument for writing) believed to have been used by Ezhuthachan was recovered from the well now in ruins.

Tirur is an important trading centre in fish and betel leaves. The important institutions here are the Munsiff's Court, the Second Class Sub-Magistrate's Court, the Government Secondary School, the Government Secondary and Basic Training School for Girls, the Government Dispensary, the Veterinary Dispensary and the library run by the Malabar Local Library Authority. There is also a good Traveller's Bungalow at Tirur.

Tirunavayi (Tirur Taluk).

A railway station five miles from Tirur, Tirunavayi is on the banks of the Bharathapuzha. The name of Tirunavayi can be split into *Shri+naa+yogi+puram*. It is a place of historical and religious importance. According to tradition Tirunavayi temple is so called on account of its having been founded by nine famous saints. Set in sylvan surroundings the temple is situated on the northern banks of the Bharathapuzha. Frequently mentioned in the *Keralolpathi*, Tirunavayi looms large in the historical traditions of Kerala. Keralan Perumal, by one account the eponymous hero of Kerala, was anointed in the royal hall at Vakayur after one of the *Mamankam* festivals. It was one of the three holy places of the legendary Cheraman Perumal (Trikkariyur, Tirunavayi and Valarpatanam Fort), and from its sandy island he is said to have set out on his pilgrimage to Mecca. Opposite to the temple on the other side of the river are a temple dedicated to Brahma who is rarely honoured in Kerala, and the *Ottanmar madham*, a college for Nambuthiri boys.

It was in Tirunavayi that the *Mamankam* festival, believed to have been founded by Cheraman Perumal, and performed for the last time in 1755, was celebrated every twelfth year.

The *Rakshapurusha* or protector of the festival was the acknowledged suzerain of Malabar. Two months before the festival began, the Zamorin summoned all the chieftains to be present; and those who acknowledged his supremacy sent flags in token of fealty. But the Walluvanad Raja, whose right to hold the festival had been usurped by the Zamorin, sent *chavers* (suicide army). The origin of the festival is obscure. From the fact that it took place every twelfth year and that during its existence Malabar was in theory without a ruler some writers have sought to link it with the other dubious tradition that the early Perumals reigned only twelve years and then abdicated. Logan's colourful description of the *Mamankam* festival of 1683 as gleaned from records preserved in the archives of the Zamorin's palace is given below:[1]

> "The western gateway (of the temple) faces a perfectly straight piece of road a little over half a mile in length stretching from the temple gateway westwards to the elevated ridge hemming in the paddy-fields on the west. This road is but little raised above the level of the paddy flat. Directly facing this straight piece of road as the elevated ridge is reached there are three or perhaps four terraces, the outlines of which may still be traced in the face of the precipitous bank.
>
> "A little to one side of the upper terrace, are the ruins of a strongly built powder magazine and on the flat ground above and on both sides of the avenue shading the public road at this place is ample space for the erection of temporary houses.
>
> "In a neighbouring enclosure under cultivation is a disused well of fine proportions and of most solid construction.
>
> "From the upper terrace alluded to, a commanding view is obtained facing eastwards of the level rice-plain at the foot, of the broad placid river on the right backed by low hills, of higher flat topped laterite plateaus on the left, their lower slopes bosomed in trees, and, in the far distance, of the great chain of western ghats with the Nilgris in the extreme left front hardly distinguishable in their proverbial colour from the sky above them.

1 See Logan's *Malabar Manual Vol. I*, pp. 166-69.

It was on this spot, on a smooth plateau of hard laterite rock, raised some 30 to 40 feet above the plain, that the Zamorin used several times in the course of the festival to take his stand with the sword of Cheraman Perumal, the last Emperor, in his hand.

"The sword is and has been for centuries slowly rusting away in its scabbard, but it is not alone on it that the Zamorin depends for his safety, for the plain below him is covered with the 30,000 Nayars of Ernad, the 10,000 of Polanad and numberless petty dependent chieftains, each counting his fighting men by the hundred or the thousand or by thousands. Away on the right across the river are the camps of the second prince of the Zamorin's family and of the dependent Punnattur Raja; the third , fourth, fifth and sixth princes' camps too are close at hand in the left front behind the temple, and behind the terrace itself is the Zamorin's camp.

"The whole scene is being made gay with flags as an elephant is being formally caparisoned with a chain of solid gold with "one hundred and fourteen small links and one clasp making in all one hundred and fifteen"—as the record specifically testifies—and with golden bosses or other ornaments too numerous to be detailed. But this part of the ceremonies is not to be permitted to pass unchallenged, for it signifies in a formal manner the Zamorin's intention to assume the role of *Rakshapurushan* or protector of the festivities and of the people there assembled. On the instant, therefore, there is a stir among the crowd assembled near the western gate of the temple directly facing at half a mile distance the Zamorin's standing place on the upper terrace.

From this spot, running due east in a perfectly straight line to the western gate of the temple, is the straight piece of road already described, but the road itself is clear and the armed crowd on the plain, it is seen, are hemmed in by barrel palisading running the full length of the road on both sides. Two spears' length apart the palisades are placed and the armed crowd on either hand, consisting on this occasion of the thirty thousand Ernad Nayars, it is seen, are all carrying spears. The spearmen may not enter that narrow lane, and by the mere weight

of their bodies present an impossible obstacle to the free passage of the foemen now bent on cutting down the Zamorin in his pride of place.

"Amid much din and firing of guns the Morituri, the *Chaver* Nayars, the elect of four Nayar houses in Walavanad, step forth from the crowd and receive the last blessings and farewells of their friends and relatives. They have just partaken of the last meal they are to eat on earth at the house of the temple representative of their chieftain; they are decked with garlands and smeared with ashes. On this particular occasion it is one of the houses of Putumanna Panikkar who heads the fray. He is joined by seventeen of his friends—Nayar or Mappilla or other arms-bearing caste-men—for all who so wish may fall in with sword and target in support of the men who have elected to die.

"Armed with swords and targets alone they rush at the spearmen thronging the palisades they wind and turn their bodies, as if they had no bones, casting them forward and backward, high and low, even to the astonishment of the beholders, as worthy Master Johnson describes them in a passage already quoted. But notwithstanding the suppleness of their limbs, notwithstanding their delight and skill and dexterity in weapons, the result is inevitable, and is prosaically recorded in the chronicle thus: "The number of *Chavers* who came and died in the early morning the next day after the elephant began to be adorned with gold trappings—being Putumanna Kantur Menon and followers—was 18".

"At various times during the ten last days of the festival the same thing is repeated. Whenever the Zamorin takes his stand on the terrace, assumes the sword and shakes it, men rush forth from the crowd on the west temple gate only to be impaled on the spears of the guardsmen who relieve each other from day to day.

"On the eleventh day, before the assembly broke up and after the final assault of the *Chavers* had been delivered, the Ernad Elankur Nambiyathiri Tirumulpad (the Zamorin next in succession) and the Tirumanisseri Nambudiri were conveyed in palanquins to the eastern end of the narrow palisaded lane and thence they advanced on

foot, prostrating themselves four times towards the Zamorin, once at the eastern end of the lane, in the middle, and once at the foot of the terraces. And after due permission was obtained they took their places on the Zamorin's right hand.

"After this, so the chronicle runs, it was the duty of the men who have formed the body-guard to march up with music and pomp to make obeisance. On this occasion, however, a large portion of the body-guard seems to have been displeased, for they dispersed without fulfilling this duty and this story corroborates in a marked way the facts already set forth regarding the independence and important political influence possessed by the Nayars as a body.

"The Ernad Menon and the Calicut Talachanna Nayar with their followers were the only chiefs who made obeisance in due form to the Zamorin on this occasion, and possibly by the time of the next festival (1695 A.D.) of which Hamilton wrote, the dissatisfaction might have increased among his followers and the Zamorin's life even may have been endangered, as Hamilton alleges, probably through lack of men to guard him. Tradition asserts that the *Chavers* who managed on one occasion to get through the guards and up to the Zamorin's seat belonging to the family of the Chandrathil Panikkar.

"The chronicle does not mention the fact, but a current tradition states that the corpses of the slain were customarily kicked by elephants as far as the brink of the fine well, of which mention has been made, and into which they were tumbled promiscuously. The well itself is nearly filled up with debris of sorts, and a search made at the spot would probably elicit conclusive evidence of the truth of this tradition".

Though *Mamankam* is today only a thing of the past, Tirunavayi has still retained its glorious traditions unsullied. The temple of Tirunavayi has earned the title of *Thekkan* Kasi (Southern Banares). The *Sarvodaya Mela* is held here every January. The ashes of Mahatma Gandhi were immersed in the Bharathapuzha flowing in front of the temple here. A statue of Gandhiji is erected on the way leading to the temple. Tirunavayi has a private High School.

Tirurangadi (Tirur Taluk) (11° 00′ North latitude and 75° 55′ East longitude).

Fourteen miles from Malappuram and four from Parappanangadi, Tirurangadi is situated on the southern bank of the Kadalundi river. According to the Census of 1951 it has a population of 8,276 and an area of 3.13 sq. miles. It is the *Tiruvana angadi* of Buchanan, and was at one time the capital of the Cheranad Taluk. The Mysoreans built a fort here around the Zamorin's palace. Tirurangadi was the battle ground of a fierce engagement that took place between the Mysoreans and the British. Makhdum Ali, one of the generals of Haider Ali was defeated and slain here in 1780. Ten years later a decisive victory over Tipu's troops was won here by the British. The place was also an important centre of the rebels during the Malabar Rebellion of 1921. There are three Secondary Schools here.

Tiruvangoor (Quilandi Taluk) (11° 20′ North latitude and 75° 40′ East longitude).

A minor village (2.53 sq. miles in area and 5,608 in population—Census 1951) five miles south of Quilandi, Tiruvangoor has a temple dedicated to Narasimha Parthasarathy. The railway station here was set on fire during the Quit-India Movement in 1942. The blackened ruins of the station still exist. Kappad, (Capocate), a historical site just a mile and half from here, is pointed out today as the village where Vasco da Gama made his landing in 1498 after rounding the Cape of Good Hope braving the dangers of the sea and making the first successful effort in finding a new sea route to India. A landmark on the Kappad beach is the memorial pillar on which is the following inscription: "Vasco da Gama landed here Kappakadavu in the year 1498". The pillar was erected by the Government of Madras in 1939. The original pillar constructed by the English East India Company was destroyed by sea erosion. During Vasco da Gama's time Kappakadavu must have been a great commercial port. A few years ago an Arab vessel engaged in contraband trade in bullion was captured off this coast. A new motorable road has been laid between Kappad and Tiruvangoor.

Tuvvur (Enad Taluk) (11° 05′ North latitude and 76° 15′ East longitude).

Situated fourteen miles east of Manjeri, Tuvvur is an important railway station on the Shoranur-Nilambur railway.

It has an area of 12.19 sq. miles and a population of 9,041 according to the 1951 census. It has two mosques, three temples and a church. There is a High School here.

Vayittiri (South Wynad Taluk). (11° 35′ North latitude and 76° 00′ East longitude).

The headquarters of the South Wynad Taluk, Vayittiri is a hill station situated thirty-nine miles north-east of Calicut on the eastern side of the Western Ghats on the Calicut-Mysore Frontier Road. It has an area of 98.219 sq. miles and a population of 24,048 according to the Census of 1951. It is a hill station 2,336 feet above sea level. There are a large number of tea estates and coffee plantations here. At Chundale, two miles and a half from here are the English and Scottish Estates including the prominent Ripon Estate. From the top of the 3,000 feet Kurichayar *mala,* ten miles west of Vayittiri on the Vayittiri-Kuthirapandi-Manantoddy road, one can have a panoramic view of the tea estates below. In addition to the local mosque and the Roman Catholic chapel, there is a temple dedicated to Mariyamman. Behind the Taluk Office is the Government Hospital. There is also a Government Ayurvedic Dispensary here. An orphanage is situated near the Traveller's Bungalow at Vayittiri. The Vayittiri Panchayat runs a library and reading room. A Second Class Sub-Magistrate's Court is located here.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX—I

Since the Volume was sent to the Press the final population figures of Kerala according to the 1961 Census upto the Taluk and Town levels have been published. The available information pertaining to the Kozhikode District is given in the following tables.

TABLE—I

Area, Population and Density of Kozhikode according to the 1961 Census

Area in Sq. miles		2,042 (a) / 2,570 (b)
Population		2,617,189
Rural		
Males	1,083,556	2,184,682
Females	1,101,126	
Urban		
Males	217,418	432,507
Females	215,089	
Rank in population among the Districts of Kerala		1
Density of population per sq. mile		1,018
Variation in population during 1951-61 (c)		551,905
Percentage increase in population during 1951-61		26.72
Sex ratio		1,012 females per 1000 males.

(a) Denotes the area figures supplied by Surveyor-General, India.

(b) Denotes the area figures supplied by State Survey Department.

(c) The total population of Kozhikode in 1951 was 2,065,284.

TABLE—II

Particulars of Literacy in Kozhikode according to the 1961 Census

Number of literates and educated.		
Males		
Rural	533,781	665,386
Urban	131,605	
Females		
Rural	310,568	397,909
Urban	87,341	
Total		1,063,295

Number of literate and educated persons to thousand persons	406
Number of literate and educated males per thousand males	511
Number of literate and educated females per thousand females	302
Rank in respect of literacy among the Districts of Kerala	8

TABLE—III

Classification of Industrial Labourers in Kozhikode District according to 1961 Census

Category		Rural		Urban		Total	Percentage
		Males	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*		
As cultivator	..	101,169	24,142	1,929	604	127,844	4.88
As agricultural labourer	..	61,991	48,740	1,022	1,271	113,024	4.32
In mining, quarying livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities	..	66,477	13,837	10,880	239	91,433	3.49
At household Industry	..	19,193	25,967	2,809	4,023	51,992	1.99
In manufacturing other than household Industry	..	33,576	7,409	21,540	4,425	66,950	2.56
In Construction	..	5,539	55	1,692	45	7,331	0.28
In Trade & Commerce	..	35,603	567	16,653	350	53,173	2.03
In Transport, Storage & Communications	..	15,933	917	10,519	316	27,685	1.06
In other services	..	171,395	47,137	34,294	9,448	262,274	10.02
Total Workers*	..	510,876	168,771	101,338	20,721	801,706	30.63

* While the percentage of workers in the District to the total population is 30.63 according to the 1961 census the percentage of male workers to the total male population is 47.06 and that of the female workers to the total female population is 14.40. The percentage of non-workers to the total population of the District comes to 69.37.

TABLE—IV

Taluk-wise figures of population for the Kozhikode District according to the 1961 census

Taluk	Total Rural Urban	*Total population*			*Literate and educated persons*		*Workers*		*Non-workers*	
		Persons	*Males*	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Badagara	Total	319,913	156,646	163,267	87,216	47,834	69,641	23,026	87,005	140,241
	Rural	276,005	134,675	141,330	74,027	39,789	59,536	20,677	75,139	120,653
	Urban	43,908	21,971	21,937	13,189	8,045	10,105	2,349	11,866	19,588
Quilandi	Total	366,343	181,108	185,235	102,441	56,645	82,667	28,793	98,441	156,442
	Rural	348,987	172,696	176,291	97,563	53,400	78,680	27,888	94,016	148,403
	Urban	17,356	8,412	8,944	4,878	3,245	3,987	905	4,425	8,039
Kozhikode	Total	660,372	333,421	326,951	202,229	130,578	152,344	32,919	181,077	294,032
	Rural	378,528	190,377	188,151	111,074	67,756	85,476	20,529	104,901	167,622
	Urban	281,844	143,044	138,800	91,155	62,822	66,868	12,390	76,176	126,410
Tirur	Total	561,212	271,435	289,777	115,595	70,267	124,642	34,770	146,793	255,007
	Rural	484,089	233,460	250,629	96,830	59,892	107,130	30,439	126,330	220,190
	Urban	77,123	37,975	39,148	18,765	10,375	17,512	4,331	20,463	34,817
Ernad	Total	524,294	260,458	263,836	116,091	71,711	128,474	45,113	131,984	218,723
	Rural	512,018	254,442	257,576	112,473	68,857	125,608	44,367	128,834	213,209
	Urban	12,276	6,016	6,260	3,618	2,854	2,866	746	3,150	5,514
South Wynad (No Urban Area)	Rural	185,055	97,906	87,149	41,814	20,874	54,446	24,871	43,460	62,278

TABLE—V

Population Figures of the Kozhikode District by Towns according to the Census of 1961

Taluk	Town	Literate and educated persons		Workers		Non-Workers		Total population		
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Persons
Badagara	1 Badagara (Municipal)	13,189	8,045	10,105	2,349	11,866	19,588	21,971	21,937	43,908
Quilandi	1 Pantalayini	4,878	3,245	3,987	905	4,425	8,039	8,412	8,944	17,356
Kozhikode	1 Elathur	2,546	1,488	1,748	699	2,522	3,635	4,270	4,334	8,604
	2 Edakkad	2,110	1,658	1,143	229	1,674	2,682	2,817	2,911	5,728
	3 Puthiyangadi	2,740	1,965	2,395	229	2,646	4,771	5,041	5,000	10,041
	4 Calicut (Municipal)	62,382	42,790	45,929	8,237	51,982	86,373	97,911	94,610	192,521
	5 Parayancheri	2,618	1,995	1,683	368	1,985	3,294	3,668	3,662	7,330
	6 Kommeri	2,165	1,606	1,471	173	1,744	3,053	3,215	3,226	6,441
	7 Beypore	11,197	7,617	8,744	1,717	9,009	14,945	17,753	16,662	34,415
	8 Nellikode	2,931	2,155	1,957	337	2,457	4,172	4,414	4,509	8,923
	9 Olavanna	2,466	1,548	1,798	401	2,157	3,485	3,955	3,886	7,841
Tirur	1 Kadalundi	3,180	1,806	2,535	783	3,355	5,614	5,890	6,397	12,287
	2 Feroke	6,602	3,476	5,422	1,427	6,663	10,612	12,085	12,039	24,124
	3 Parappanangadi	1,990	800	2,201	337	2,297	4,191	4,498	4,528	9,026
	4 Tanur	3,004	1,288	4,291	1,063	4,549	8,386	8,840	9,449	18,289
	5 Trikandiyur	3,989	3,005	3,063	721	3,599	6,014	6,662	6,735	13,397
Ernad	1 Manjeri	3,618	2,854	2,866	746	3,150	5,514	6,016	6,260	12,276

TABLE—VI

Provisional Figures for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for Kozhikode according to the 1961 Census

	Scheduled Castes	*Scheduled Tribes*
Males	66,817	34,254
Females	67,880	34,045
Total	134,697	68,299

APPENDIX—II

A Ready Reckoner *

I. WEIGHTS.

Table

10 milligrams (mg)	=	1 centigram
10 centigrams	=	1 decigram
10 decigrams	=	1 gram (1 g=1000 mg)
10 grams	=	1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=	1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=	1 kilogram (1 kg=1000 g)
10 kilograms	=	1 myriogram
10 myriograms	=	1 quintal
10 quintals	=	1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1000 kg)

Conversion Tables

From old units to new units:

1 grain	=	0.000064799 kg.
	=	0.064799 gram (g)
	=	64.799 milligrams (mg)
1 manchadi	=	250 mg (approx.)
1 panamida	=	0.380384 g.
1 kazhanchu	=	5.705760 grams.
1 sovereign	=	7.988062 g.
1 tola	=	11.6638 g.
	=	0.0116638 kg.
1 ounce	=	28.3495 g.
(i.e. 16 oz=1 lb.)	=	0.0283495 kg.
1 palam	=	34.9914 g.
1 chatak (5 tolas)	=	58. g (to the nearest g.)
1 pao	=	233 g. (approx.)
1 thookku	=	1.74957 kg.
1 pound (38.89 tolas)	=	453.5924 g.
	=	0.4535924 kg.
1 rathal	=	489.8796 g.
1 seer (80 tolas)	=	933.10 g.
	=	0.93310 kg.
1 thulam (16 lb.)	=	7 kg & 300 g (to the nearest 100 g.)
1 maund (40 seers)	=	37.3242 kilogram (kg)
	=	0.0373242 metric tonne
1 hundred-weight	=	50.802 kg.
1 ton	=	1.01605 metric tonne
	=	1016.05 kg.
	=	(1 carat = 200 mg.)

From metric units to the old units:

1 mg.	=	0.0154324 grain
	=	(0.005 carat)

*This was supplied by the Office of the Controller of Weights and Measures, Kerala State.

1 g.	=	15.4323 grains
	=	4 manchadi (approx.)
	=	0.085735 tola
	=	0.0352740 ounce
1 kg.	=	1.07169 seers
	=	2.20462 lb.
1 quintal	=	220.5 lbs.
	=	1.9684 hundred-weight
	=	2.6792269 maunds
1 metric tonne	=	19.68 cwt.
	=	26.7923 maunds
	=	0.98420 ton

II. Length

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	=	1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=	1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=	1 metre
		(1 m.=100 cms=1000 mm)
10 metres	=	1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=	1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=	1 kilometre
		(1 km.=1000 m.)

Conversion Table

From old units to the new units:

1 inch	=	2.54 cms.
	=	25.4 mms.
	=	0.0254 m.
1 foot	=	30.48 cms.
	=	0.3048 m.
1 yard	=	91.44 cms.
	=	0.9144 m.
1 furlong	=	201.168 m.
1 mile	=	1.609344 km.
	=	1609.344 m.
1 chain	=	20.1168 m.

From new units to the old:

1 mm.	=	0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=	0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	=	3.937 inch
1 m.	=	1.09361 yds.
	=	3.28084 feet
	=	39.3701 inches
	=	0.0497097 Chain
	=	0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	=	0.0621 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=	0.62137 mile

III. Capacity

Table

10 millimetres (ml.)	=	1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=	1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=	1 litre (1 l. = 1000 ml.)
10 litres (l)	=	1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=	1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=	1 kilolitre

Conversion Tables

From old units to new units:

1 ounce	=	28 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=	142 ml. (do.)
1 pint	=	568 ml. (do.)
	=	0.56824 l.
1 quart	=	1 litre and 136 ml.(do.)
	=	1.13649 l.
1 gallon	=	4.54596 l.
1 liquid seer	=	940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml)

From new units to the old

1 litre	=	1.75980 pints
	=	0.87990 quart
	=	0.219975 gallon
	=	1.1 liquid seer (approx.)
	=	35 liquid ounces (do.)
	=	1000.028 cubic centimetres
	=	86 tolas of pure water
	=	61.023 cubic inches
	=	1.000028 cubic decimetres
1 kilolitre	=	1.000028 cubic metres

Conversion of Local Units

	Travancore	*Cochin*	*Malabar*
Struck Para (10 Ed.)	13 l. 110 ml.	11 l. 250 ml.	11 l. 900 ml.
Heaped Para	..	..	13 l. 110 ml.
Srtuck Edangali (4 Nazhees)	1 l. 310 ml. (80 cubic inch)	1 l. 125 ml. (44 oz.)	1 l. 190 ml.
Heaped Edangali	..	..	1 l. 310 ml.
Nazhee	330 ml.	280 ml.	330 ml. (2 Uri)

Calicut Seer (Heaped)	=	1 l. (approx.)
Cannanore Seer	=	2 l. (approx.)

IV. Volume

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	=	1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=	1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=	1 cubic metre

Conversion Tables

From old units to the new:

1 cubic inch	=	16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	=	28.3168 cubic decimetres
	=	28.316 litres
1 cubic yard	=	0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	=	0.00454609 cubic metre
	=	4.54596 litres
	=	4.54609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	=	28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=	142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	=	568.24 cubic centimetres
	=	0.56825 litre
1 quart	=	1.1365 litres
1 litre	=	1000.028 cubic centimetres
	=	1.000028 cubic decimetres

From new units to the old:

1 cubic centimetre	=	0.061024 cubic inch
	=	0.0070390 gill
	=	0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	=	0.0353147 cubic foot
	=	0.219969 gallon
	=	0.99997 litre
1 cubic metre	=	35.315 cubic foot
	=	1.30795 cubic yard
	=	219.969 gallon
	=	0.99997 kilolitre

V. Area

Table

100 sq. mm.	=	1 sq. cm.
100 sq. cm.	=	1 sq. decimetre
100 sq. decimetre	=	1 sq. metre (1 sq.m.= 10000 sq. cm.)
100 sq. metres	=	1 are or 1 sq. dekametre
100 ares	=	1 hectare or 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha) =10000 sq. m.)
100 hectares	=	1 square kilometre

Conversion Tables

From old units to the new:

1 square inch	=	6.4516 sq. cm.
	=	0.00064516 sq. m.
1 ,, foot	=	929.03 sq. cm.
	=	0.092903 sq. m.
	=	9.2903 sq. decimetres
1 ,, yard	=	0.83613 sq. metre
	=	0.0083613 are

1 cent	=	40.4686 sq. metres
1 square chain	=	404.686 sq. metres
1 acre (4840 sq. yds. or 10 sq. chains)	=	0.404686 hectare
	=	40.4686 ares
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	=	258.999 hectares
	=	2.58999 sq. kilometres

From the new units to the old:

1 square cm.	=	0.155000 sq. inch
1 „ metre	=	1550.00 sq. inch
	=	10.7639 sq. foot
	=	1.19599 sq. yard
1 are	=	119.599 sq. yard
	=	0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	=	2 acres & 2280 sq. yards
	=	2.47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	=	0.386101 sq. mile

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GLOSSARY

GLOSSARY

Acharam	An established usage or custom
Adhikari	Village Revenue Officer
Amsam	Part of a Taluk
Anandiravan	The young male member or nephew in a matriarchal family
Annaprasanam	The ceremony connected with giving the first dole of rice to a child
Antarjanam	Married Namboothiri Woman
Arat	An important festival of taking the image of the deity in procession to bathe on the last day of festivals in temples
Ariyittuvazhcha	Ceremony connected with the coronation of the Zamorin
Ashtamangalyam	The eight auspicious things arranged in connection with ceremonies etc.
Ashtavaidyans	The eight celebrated physicians of Kerala belonging to 8 Namboothiri families
Aya	A female servant particularly attending to children
Bhasma	Holy ashes prepared by burning cowdung
Balasamaj	Children's Club
Bhajan	Prayer
Bhakti	Devotion
Chaver	Suicide squads
Chenda	Vertical drum
Chikitsa	Medical treatment
Chira	Enclosure, Dam, Tank
Chitti	An indigenous credit institution
Chowlam	The rite of shaving the hair on the head
Desam	Territorial division, place, locality
Desavazhi	A local chieftain
Dhara	Pouring oil or water over the head, bathing
Diksha	The growing of the hair on the head and chin as a quasi-religious duty
Dwarapalas	Guards at the gate, figures of demons carved in stone or wood and placed at the gates of shrines as guards
Eralpad	Heir apparent to the throne of the Zamorin
Elaya Tavazhi	Younger branch of a family
Ezhuthachan	Old village school-master
Ezhuthupalli	Village School
Gopuram	Tower, especially of a temple
Grandha	Alphabet, old cadjan manuscripts, also a verse of 32 letters

Grihapravesa	Ceremonial entry into a house for the first time
Haj	Pilgrimage to Mecca
Illam	The term for the house of Namboothiris
Kaikottikali	Dancing and singing with clapping of hands in measure to the dance and songs
Kalari	Gymnasium or Fencing School
Kalaripayattu	Training in combat given in the *Kalari* or gymnasium
Kalasamithi	Arts Club
Kalpavriksha	The paradise tree, the tree that yields all desires. The name is applied to coconut tree in appreciation of its valuable uses
Karanavam	The oldest male member in a *Marumakkathayam* family
Kanjee	Gruel of rice
Kazhcha	Present or gift on festive occasions
Koormalsaram	Faction fight
Kuttam	Local Assembly
Maddalam	Horizontal drum
Madampimar	Nair Chieftains of early days
Madrasa	A school where Muslim religious education is imparted
Makkathayam	Patriarchal system of inheritance
Malikhana	Pensions paid by the British Government to native rulers deprived of their Kingdoms
Mammatti	A Spade
Mandapam	Platform
Maram	Levelling board (an agricultural implement)
Maramat	Public works
Marmam	Vulnerable point of the body
Marumakkathayam	Matriarchal system of inheritance
Maulud	Muslim celebration of Saints
Melkoima	Overlordship
Mootha Thavazhi	Senior branch of a family
Mridangam	A kind of drum
Mundakan	Winter season crop
Mundu	White cloth worn round the waist stretching up to the ankle
Mullah	A Muslim priest
Musaliar	A Muslim preacher or priest
Nadu	A District
Naduvazhi	Local chieftain, a ruler
Nalukettu	The traditional Malayali house
Nercha	Mappila festival in honour of saints
Nikkah	Muslim marriage
Nilavilakku	Standing Lamp
Niskramana	The ceremony of taking the child out of the house for the first time

Nuzzar	A present (made to a King)
Ola	Palm leaf
Onam	The great national festival of Kerala celebrated in the month of Chingam (August-September)
Oonjal	A swing
Pamban Tullal	Snake dance
Pandal	Thatched shed put up for temporary purposes
Parpatakam	A kind of crisp thin cake made of flour (of rice and black gram)
Patasala	School
Pizhichil	A system of indigenous medical treatment
Pudava	Cloth
Pulakuli	Bath of purification performed by relatives of a person after his death
Pumsavana	A ceremony performed in the 3rd month of pregnancy, the object being the begetting of male issues
Punja	Single crop lands which lie submerged in water and are drained off and cultivated once in a year, also irrigated dry lands where paddy is cultivated
Punyaham	A purification ceremony to remove pollution
Rakshapurusha	Protector
Sambandham	A loose form of marriage
Savarna	Caste Hindu
Smartha Vicharam	Namboothiri Caste Tribunal
Sradha	Oblation to the manes of deceased ancestors
Srikovil	The *sanctum sanctorum* or inner shrine of a temple
Sthanam	A title, dignity
Tannadar	A police officer
Tali	A wedding ornament (a neck ornament tied as a marriage badge)
Tarawad	A family
Tattu	Ceremonial fashion of wearing cloth
Thalapoli	Ceremony in which girls stand in a row bearing on their palms lighted lamps with rice etc., in a plate
Thangals	Mappila religious leaders
Thiruvanthali	Funeral ceremonies of the Zamorin
Tirandukuli	A ceremony which is performed when a girl attains puberty
Tiyyat	Ceremony of running over fire
Topikallus	Hat stones marking sepulchral chambers
Tulasithara	A raised platform where the basil plant is grown for worship
Udakakriya	Funeral ceremonies
Vadakkan Pattukal	Northern Ballads

Vaidyan	An Ayurvedic physician
Vaidyasala	An Ayurvedic dispensary
Vanku	Muslim call to prayers
Vattezhuthu	An archaic script once prevalent in South India
Velichappad	Oracle
Vidyarambha	Beginning of the study of the alphabet
Vimochana Samaram	Liberation struggle
Viruppu	Paddy cultivated between April and August
Vishukaineettam	Presentation of coins on Vishu day
Yagam	Sacrifice
Zakkat	The duty of alms performed by Muslims

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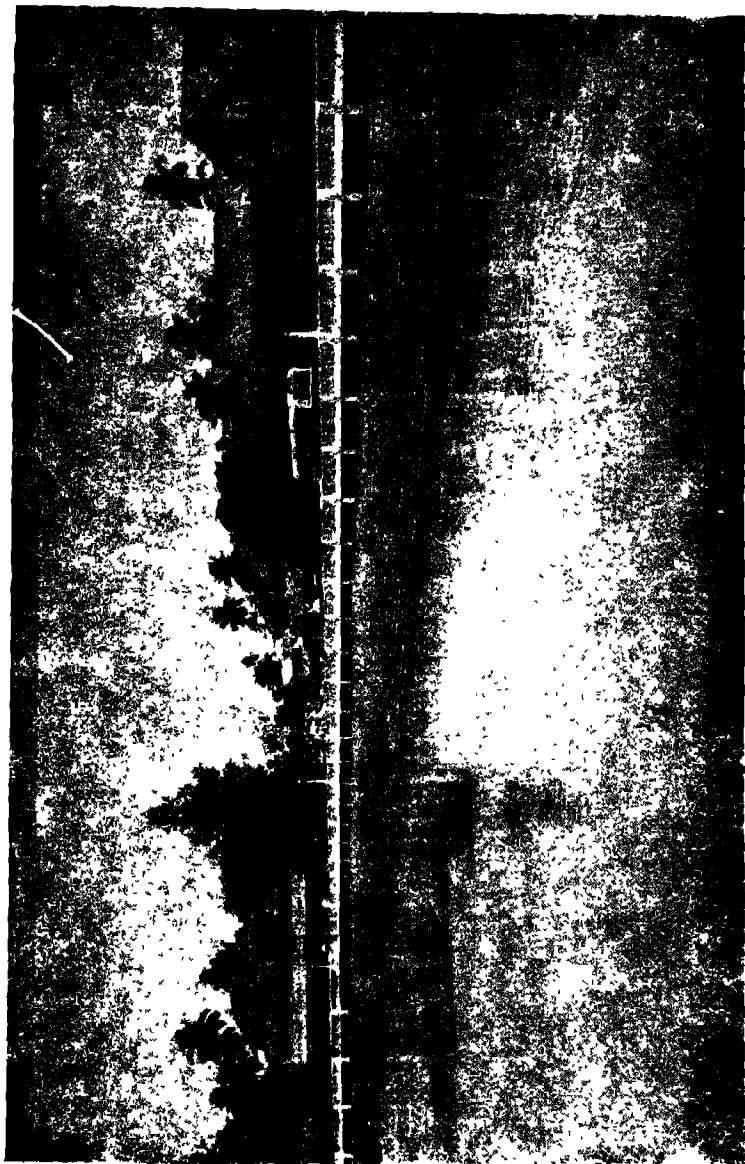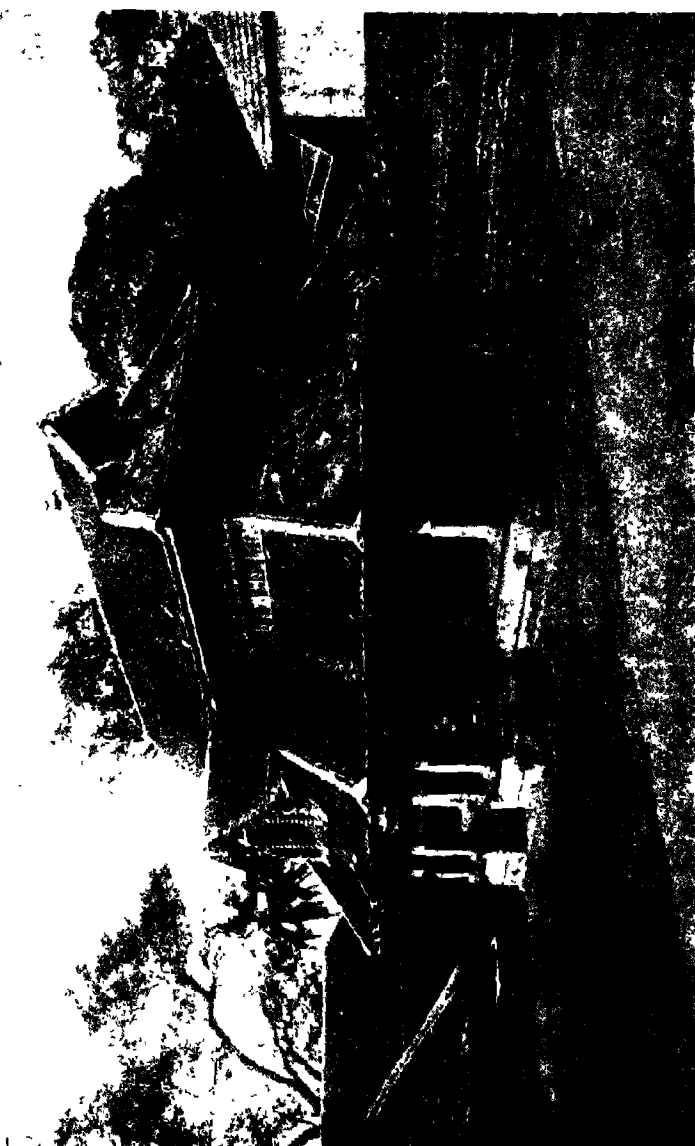
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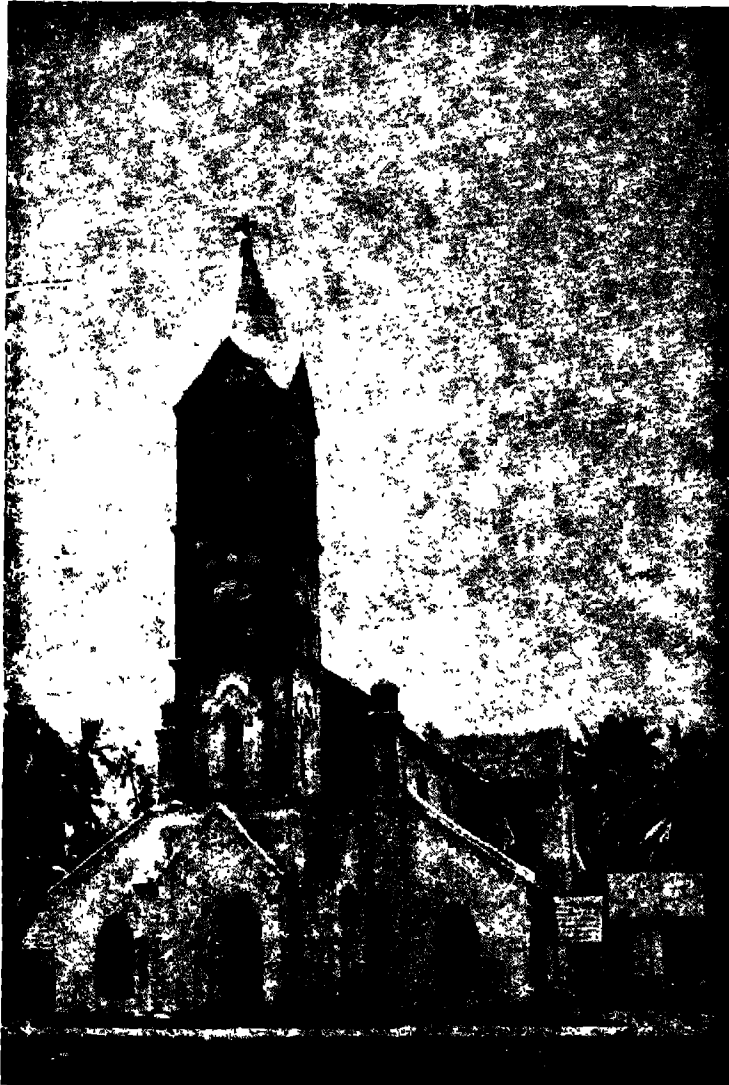
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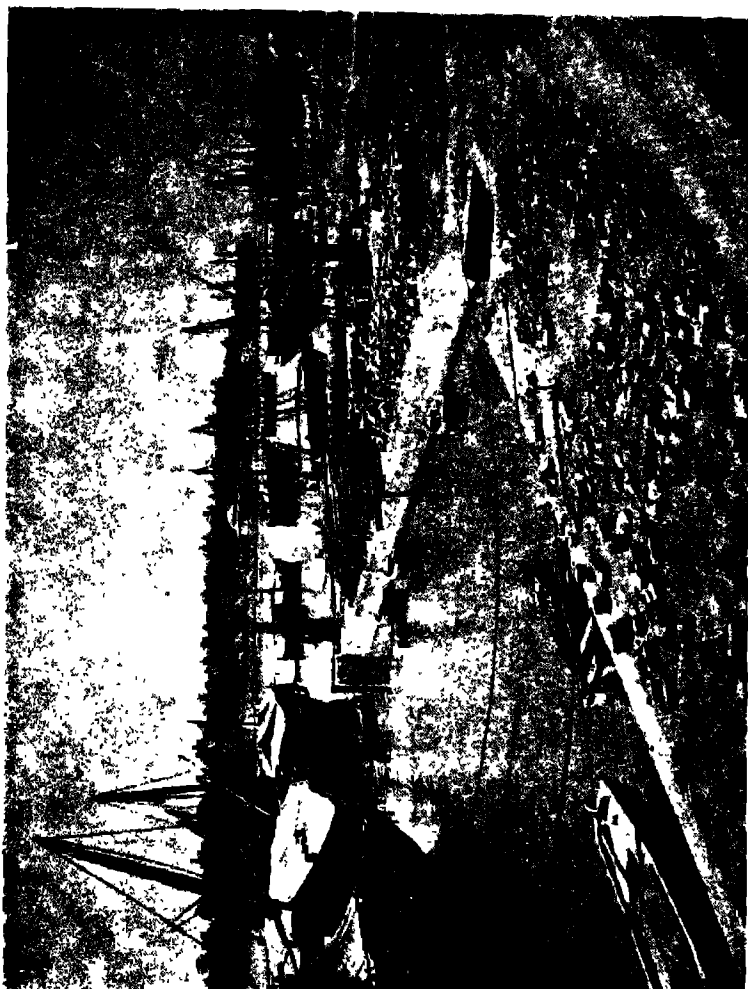
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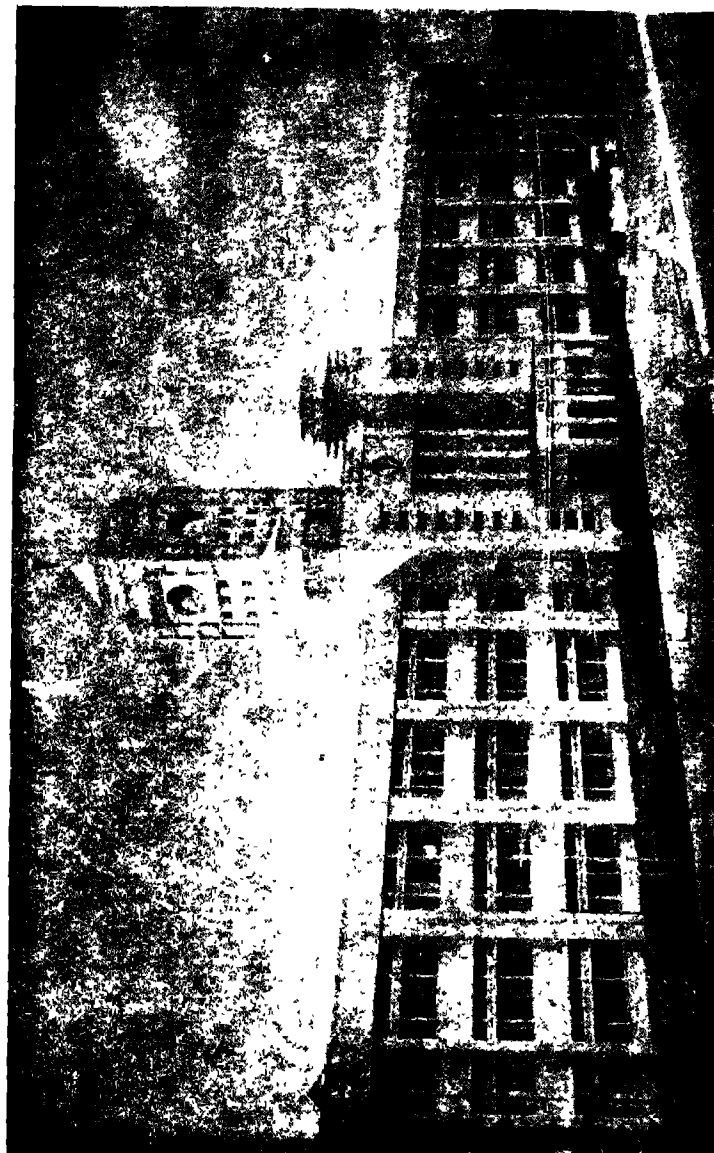
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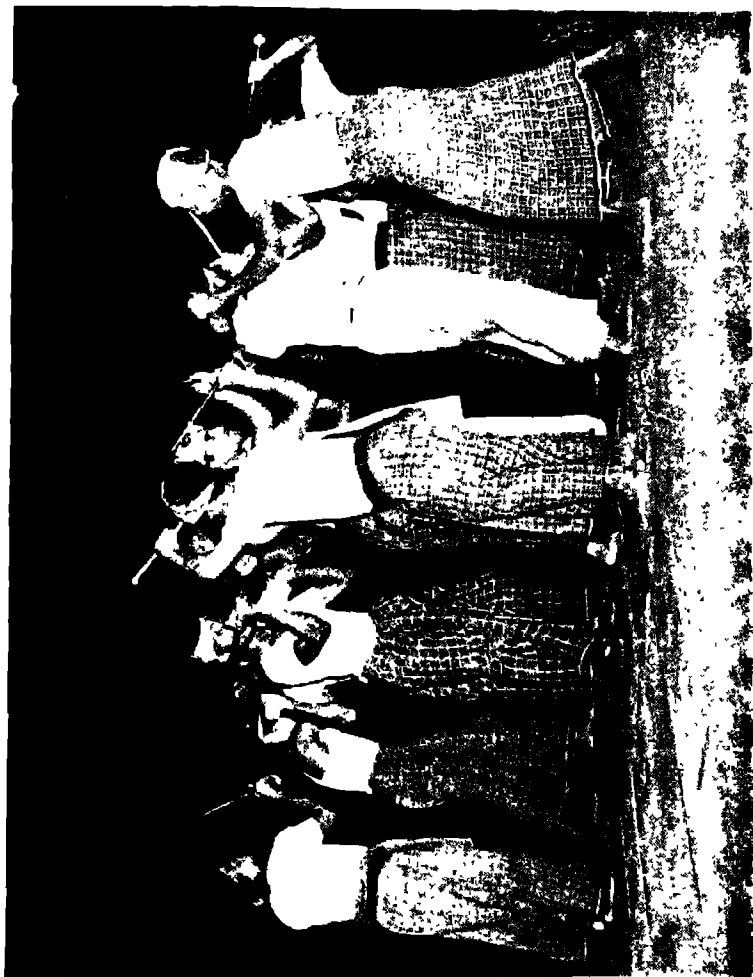
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